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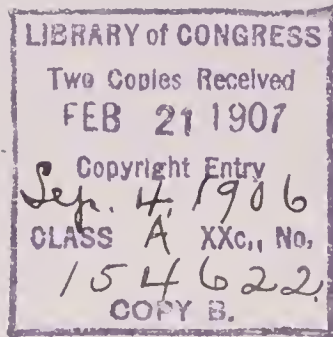
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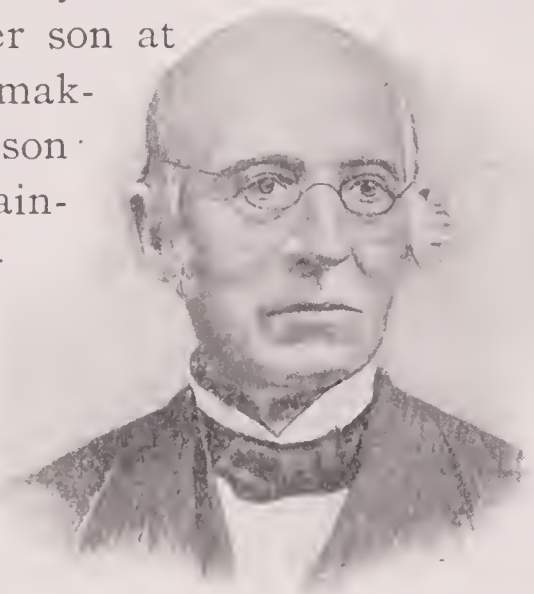


## WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON

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*A life devoted to fighting a wrong.*

THE son of Abijah Garrison, the sailor, and Frances Maria Lloyd, William Lloyd Garrison, born in 1805, inherited the striking characteristics of both. The mother was a noble woman, lofty in aspiration, intellectual, tall, majestic and graceful, and her influence over her son was very great. A life of adversity followed the loss of her husband, but she combatted it nobly. Her son at nine years of age was sent to Lynn, to learn shoemaking, but he lacked strength for this work. Mrs. Garrison had removed to Baltimore, where she spent her remaining days, but William Lloyd wanted to live in Newburyport, his birthplace, and she consented. He obtained a place on the Newburyport "Herald" for a term of seven years, where he became an expert typesetter and was made foreman. Sixty years afterward, he entered that office and again handled a "composing stick," in memory of the days long past.



Garrison had inherited a taste for literature, and was fond of poetry and oratory. His love of books led him into attempts at authorship. He wrote an article in a disguised hand, and sent it through the post-office to the "Herald," over the signature, "An Old Bachelor." It caught the fancy of the proprietor, who, after reading it aloud, handed it to its author to put in type. This was followed by others, all of which were published. The proprietor wrote through the post-office asking an interview, but Garrison did not disclose his identity, though later he was discovered and was encouraged to continue writing. During the summer of 1823, he went to Baltimore, to be with his aged mother. At that time he was remarkably handsome, strong, cheerful, ambitious and manly.

Garrison returned to Newburyport and soon afterward started the "Free Press," with a tendency to reform. Whittier became an anonymous contributor to it, and when his personality was discovered, Garrison went to see him, and they were afterward closely associated in their opposition to slavery. The "Free Press" was not financially

successful, and Garrison became the editor of the "National Philanthropist," in Boston. Later he conducted the "Journal of the Times," at Bennington, Vermont. In 1829, with Benjamin Lundy, the Quaker, he started an Abolitionist paper in Baltimore. His denunciations of the domestic slave trade caused him to be arrested and thrown into jail, but his fine was paid by Arthur Tappan, to whom he was an entire stranger. Tappan's attention was called to Garrison by Henry Clay, to whom Whittier had written to ask his influence in the interest of his friend. After forty-nine days of imprisonment, he was set free. While in jail he prepared several lectures. In Boston, with no money, friends or influence, in a little upstairs room, he started the "Liberator." In its first issue he declared:—

"I will be as harsh as truth, as uncompromising as justice: I am in earnest; I will not equivocate; I will not excuse; I will not retreat a single inch, and I will be heard!"

Robert Y. Hayne, of South Carolina, wrote to Mayor Otis, of Boston, to ask the name of the editor of the "Liberator." Otis replied that he had found a poor young man printing "this insignificant sheet in an obscure hole, his only helper being a negro boy, and his supporters only a few persons of all colors and little influence." The Virginia Association of South Carolina offered a reward of fifteen hundred dollars for the arrest and conviction of any one detected in circulating the "Liberator," and the legislature of Georgia offered a reward of five thousand dollars on similar terms.

Meanwhile this poor young man in his garret had set the people thinking and acting. The "fanatics" of Boston met one dark night and formed the New England Antislavery Society. Garrison and his coadjutors were everywhere denounced. Elijah Lovejoy, a clergyman, was killed at Alton, Illinois, by a mob, for espousing the cause; and even in Boston, the people of wealth, position and culture were arrayed against the "Abolitionists." On one of these occasions, in Faneuil Hall, Wendell Phillips made his first celebrated speech, that placed him by the side of Garrison. In 1835 a mob dragged Garrison through the streets of Boston, with a rope around his body, and his life was only saved by the city authorities, who put him in jail for safe keeping. There he had, he said, those delightful companions, a good conscience and a cheerful mind. Wendell Phillips said of him:—

"Erratic as many suppose Garrison, intemperate in utterance, mad in judgment, an enthusiast gone crazy, the moment you sit down at his side he is patient in explanation, clear in statement, sound in judgment, studying carefully every step, calculating every assault, measuring the force to



meet it, never in haste, always patiently waiting until the time ripens—fit for a great leader.”

He did become the fearless leader of the Abolitionists. He struck at the root of the whole matter, when he recognized the fact that the fabric of slavery was founded on the Constitution of the United States. His vehement exclamations that the Constitution was “a covenant with death and an agreement with hell,” increased and intensified the anger of the people, both North and South. His fierce, sharp words forced forward the convictions which entered largely into the election of Abraham Lincoln. The long-looked-for hour, in his judgment, had come, and his work was nearly done; yet during the war he continued to labor and to agitate until President Lincoln’s Proclamation of Emancipation struck the shackles from the slave—a consummation for which Garrison, all his life, had prayed and labored. In recognition of his great work, Mr. Lincoln invited him to be present when, in 1865, the Union flag was again raised over Fort Sumter, whence it had been hauled down four years before. After the war, a gift of thirty thousand dollars was made up for him by his admirers, and the remainder of his life was spent in comfort.

Of the many orations upon his death, which occurred in 1879, none was more masterful, eloquent and appreciative than that of Wendell Phillips, from which the following is quoted:—

“Here lie the brain and heart, here lies the godly-gifted, statesmanlike intellect, logical as Jonathan Edwards, brave as Luther, which confronted the logic of South Carolina with an assertion broad and direct enough to make an issue and necessitate a conflict of two civilizations. It is true that that man brought upon America everything that can be called disaster for the last twenty years, and it is equally true that if you seek, through the hidden causes and unheeded events, the hand that wrote “Emancipation” on the statute book and on the flag, it lies still there to-day. Serene, brave, all-accomplished, marvelous man! I sit down to contemplate the make-up of his qualities. I remember that he was mortal, and where shall we find his equal among those who are waging earnest, unceasing effort to quell sin, to reform error, to enlighten darkness, to bind broken hearts? Farewell, for a little while, noblest Christian man—leader, brave, tireless, unselfish! The ear that heard thee, it blessed thee; the eye that saw thee, gave witness to thee. More truly than it could have been uttered since the great patriot wrote it, ‘The blessings of him that was ready to perish are thine own eternal great reward.’”

GEARY, JOHN WHITE.—(1819-1873.) An American soldier and statesman, born at Mt. Pleasant, Pa. He attained the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the Mexican War and was the first commander of the city of Mexico and colonel of his regiment. He was the first postmaster of San Francisco (1849); mayor of that city (1850); territorial governor of Kansas (1856). At the beginning of the Civil War he raised the 28th Pennsylvania Volunteers and commanded at Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, Lookout Mountain, and was with Sherman on the march to the sea. He became a major-general. He was governor of Pennsylvania from 1866 until two weeks before his death.

GEORGIA, ARMY OF.—This name was given by Gen. Sherman to the army that he led from Atlanta to the sea. It was composed of the 15th and 17th corps, Army of the Tennessee, and the 14th and 20th corps, Army of the Cumberland. Its strength was 60,000.

"GEORGIA," THE.—A cruiser built at Glasgow, Scotland, for the Confederate government, to prey upon the commerce of the U. S. during the Civil War. Her career on the sea was brief. She sailed in April, 1863, and destroyed a number of vessels off the European coast. Aug. 15, of the same year, she was seized by the U. S. S. "Niagara," which ended her service as a commerce destroyer.

GETTY, GEORGE WASHINGTON.—Born at Georgetown, D. C., 1819. A Union general in the Civil War.

GETTYSBURG (Pa.), BATTLE OF.—Gettysburg is the capital of Adams, one of the southernmost tier of counties of Pennsylvania, and is thirty-six miles southwest of Harrisburg, the state capital. Here was fought, July 1, 2, and 3, 1863, one of the great battles of the Civil War. The Union army, with about 80,000 effective men, was commanded by Gen. George G. Meade, and the Confederate army, 70,000 strong, by Gen. Robert E. Lee. The battle began July 1, by an accidental collision between the advance of the Union army under Gen. John F. Reynolds, and a Confederate force under Gen. Ambrose P. Hill. Gen. Reynolds was killed early in the action. The fighting of the first day was favorable to the Confederates, who captured above 5,000 prisoners. Both armies concentrated during the night and the combat continued two more days with terrific fighting and great losses on both sides. A historic feature of the battle was the charge of Pickett's Confederate division, July 3, to the crest of Cemetery Ridge, the key to the Union position. Nothing more gallant is recorded in history. Three-fourths of Pickett's men were killed, wounded, or taken, but the sacrifice was in vain. It was the climax of the battle, and when Pickett failed to pierce the Union line, Lee determined to retreat.



He did so and conducted his army back to Virginia. The losses in the action were nearly equal, and aggregated 6,000 killed, 26,000 wounded, and 11,000 prisoners. The victory at Gettysburg defeated the purpose of Gen. Lee in his second and last campaign north of the Potomac, and has been characterized as the "high-water mark of the rebellion." (See the following sketches: GEORGE G. MEADE, ROBERT E. LEE, JAMES LONGSTREET.)

GIBSON, RANDALL LEE.—(1822–1892.) A noted lawyer and politician and an officer of the Confederate army in the Civil War.

GILLMORE, QUINCY ADAMS.—(1825–1888.) A celebrated military engineer and general of the Civil War.

GOLDSBOROUGH, LOUIS MALESHERBES.—(1805–1878.) An American naval officer, born in Washington, D. C. In 1812 at the age of seven years he was a midshipman in the navy. In 1825 at the age of twenty years, a lieutenant. In 1827 he received the thanks of England for rescuing the "Comet" from Greek pirates. During the Mexican War he commanded the "Ohio" at Vera Cruz. He then became superintendent of the United States Naval Academy. During the Civil War he was flag officer of the "Minnesota" (1861); rear-admiral (1862); and was in command of the European squadron (1865). He was retired in 1873 after a period of active service of sixty-six years.

GRAHAM, CHARLES K.—Born at New York, 1824; died, 1889. A naval and military officer of the U. S. When the Civil War began, he was a subaltern in the navy, stationed at the Brooklyn Navy Yard. He preferred the army and was permitted to change to that branch of service. He was appointed colonel of the 74th N. Y. volunteers and took the field. He served to the end of the war, in the Army of the Potomac, rising to the grade of major-general by brevet.

GRANGER, GORDON.—Born in New York, 1821; died, 1876. He was a graduate of West Point and served in the Mexican War; was made a brigadier-general in 1861 and early in the Civil War commanded a brigade of cavalry operating in northern Mississippi; was promoted to major-general; commanded the reserve corps at Chickamauga and the 4th corps at Missionary Ridge and in the campaign immediately following for the relief of Knoxville in eastern Tennessee; in the closing months of the war he commanded the land forces which coöperated with Admiral Farragut in the reduction of Fort Morgan and the capture of Mobile.

## ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT

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*The man who never let go, and so won success.*



“GRANT, the Hammerer,” is not a bad term, rightly understood. Persistency was one of Grant’s marked qualities—as when, at Fort Donelson, he declined to parley with Buckner and demanded his unconditional surrender, adding, “I propose to move immediately upon your works”; as when he wrote to the Secretary of War from the front of Spottsylvania, “I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer”; or later as, when President, he came back to a discussion of his San Domingo annexation project, after friend and foe alike had thought it buried forty fathoms deep. When Grant took hold, he never let go until his purpose had been fulfilled, and therein lay the secret of his success. He had the faculty of attaining decisive results—of driving home his blows, as at Donelson, where he captured the garrison that should have escaped; at Vicksburg, where he hemmed in the enemy that should have kept the open field; at Missionary Ridge, where he not only defeated but routed and demoralized his antagonist; and in the Appomattox campaign, where, making his superior numbers tell on Lee after more than a ten months’ struggle, he struck so constantly and heavily that Lee’s army was battered into fragments. In all this we have the “Hammerer,” but a hammerer that knows when and where and how to deliver his blows.

Except as the most conspicuous figure in the Civil War, it would be impossible to view Grant as a subject of enduring popular interest. There was nothing picturesque or animating about him, no salient points upon which to lay hold; no variegated background upon which to paint an impressive picture. His best passport to fame is the fact that he rose by sheer merit to the head of the Union armies, over men of larger opportunities or pretensions; and that when he reached the place, without seeking it, he was equal to its every demand, and so conducted himself in it as to win general esteem, and the envy and resentment of none.

As Grant was a plain, simple man, so his history is plain and simple. He was born and brought up a country boy in Ohio, with



only a country school education. He had a good deal of freedom and grew up in a healthy way, with no marked predilection except a love of horses, which lasted throughout his life. His father, an energetic and forehanded man, was enabled to procure for the boy a nomination to the Military Academy, which Hiram Ulysses, as his name then was, entered in 1839, when just past seventeen years of age. He was a frank, shrewd, cheerful fellow; not forward, yet companionable; not bookish, but the most fearless horseman in the corps of cadets. He had been erroneously entered on the roster of the Academy as "U. S. Grant," and was known as "Uncle Sam" during his cadet days. When graduated and commissioned in the infantry, this sobriquet was changed to "Sam Grant" and this was his colloquial name in the "old" army till he left it. He adopted the change to "Ulysses S.," dropping the "Hiram" and choosing "Simpson," the family name of his mother, to be represented by the middle initial.



Grant did garrison duty till the breaking out of the Mexican War, in which he served as a lieutenant in the infantry battalion of Major Belknap, a fatherly old disciplinarian. He was a good officer; not brilliant, but trustworthy, and intelligent in the range of duties that fell to a subaltern. After the war, he was stationed on the Pacific coast and, reaching the grade of captain by regular promotion, came into command of a company at the important post of Fort Vancouver, in Washington Territory. Here his habits became so unsteady that he left the service by compulsory resignation, in 1854. During his stay at the post, he had given one evidence of the possession of military ability, by his intelligent exposition to brother officers, in their social discussions, of the merits and defects of the strategy of the Mexican War. More than one of these auditors remarked that they had not suspected that "Sam" Grant had so much in him.

The years that followed his retirement from the army were the gloomiest in Grant's career. For a time he tried farming in a small way near St. Louis. The breaking out of the Civil War found him in the leather business with his father, at Galena, Illinois; but he was a West Pointer, had seen war service, and knew the military drill and routine that had suddenly become so valuable. Casting about for an opening, he went to Cincinnati, to seek a place on the staff of McClellan, who had just been appointed major-general of the Ohio militia. In this he failed, but he got employment in the office of the adjutant-general of Illinois, where knowledge of army regulations and military usage was badly needed. Here he remained a few weeks, when the Governor offered him the colonelcy of the Twenty-first

Illinois Volunteers, a regiment that nobody had been able to manage, and which was to be disbanded if Grant declined the offer or failed to bring the regiment to a condition fit for service. Grant accepted the commission, and being a trained soldier, soon had his officers and men in an acceptable state of discipline and efficiency. This impressed the governor, and he and the Representative in Congress from the Galena district bespoke for Grant one of the many brigadierships just created by act of Congress. It was the government's good fortune that in this instance it got an old instead of a new soldier in the dispensation of patronage.

Grant's first field service was under Fremont, who then commanded the Missouri department. He was stationed at Cairo, on the Mississippi, and while there he arranged his expedition across the river to Belmont. It was not a brilliant success, though he got his troops back to their own side of the river when a man of less inherent ability might have failed. Halleck, who succeeded Fremont, did not in the least disparage Grant's military capacity in comparison with that of his other general officers, but he did distrust his personal habits.

The capture of Fort Donelson in February, 1862, made Grant famous and won him the rank of major-general. The delighted public seized upon his phrases, "No terms but unconditional surrender," and "I propose to move immediately upon your works," and, until its attention was drawn elsewhere, acclaimed Grant the man of the hour. Except for his phrases and his popularity, Fort Donelson might have been his last as well as his first success; but the dissatisfaction of his superiors was a little tempered, at least, by the show he had made of being a good fighter and able to match himself against the enemy in strategy and battle tactics.

In the beginning of April, 1862, Grant had his army encamped near Pittsburg Landing, on the Tennessee River, awaiting a junction with Buell, who was moving down from middle Tennessee. When united, the two armies were to be conducted by Halleck against Corinth, some twenty miles distant, where Albert Sidney Johnston and Beauregard were strongly fortified. Grant and Sherman—the latter one of his division commanders—were both of the opinion that the enemy would sit still at Corinth and use the days of grace in strengthening the position, and that Grant was in no danger of attack, though on the enemy's side of the river; and for this reason no precautionary or defensive measures were taken. But Johnston moved out and attacked Grant, for the very reason that the latter was not on his guard. Grant's camp was captured and his forces were driven to the river bank, where nightfall and the arrival of Buell's troops saved them. The next morning, heavily reinforced,



Grant was able to assume the offensive and Beauregard, who had succeeded to the command of the Confederate army by the death of Johnston, drew off and returned to Corinth. Grant was held to have been at fault for the rout of the first day and the imminent peril of the army. He was relieved of the command and the siege of Corinth was conducted by Halleck. As the hero of Fort Donelson, Grant was retained on nominal duty, with nothing to do in fact. His chance, however, came again. Halleck was called to Washington to become general-in-chief, and Grant was restored to active command.

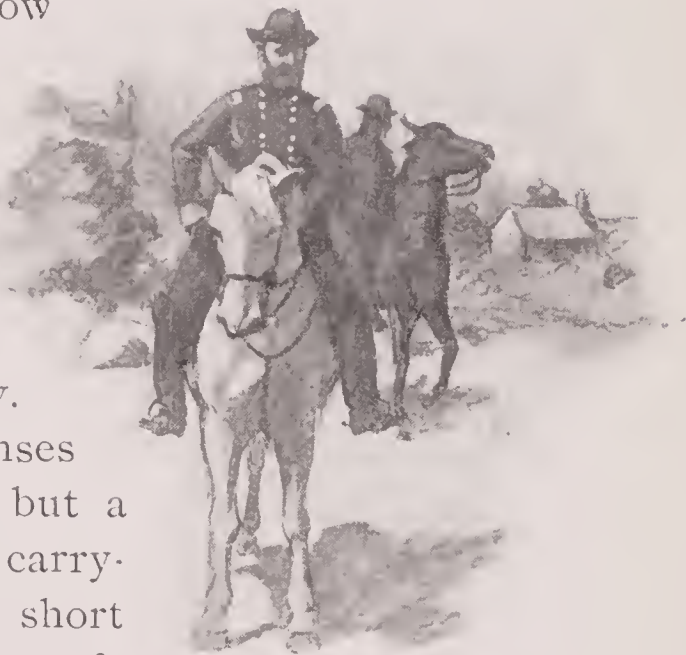
In December, 1862, Grant began his so-called Yazoo River expedition against Vicksburg. It failed, but not until Grant had shown such high qualities in the management of a protracted campaign as to retain the confidence of the authorities at Washington. Thus assured, he began again by crossing the river below

Vicksburg and moving up against it. Sharp engagements at Port Gibson, Raymond, Jackson and Champion's Hill, in the first half of May, 1863, forced the Confederate army toward the defenses of Vicksburg, and on May 17, a battle at Big Black River drove it to the shelter of the strong line of earthworks that encircled the city.

Two days later an assault by Grant on the defenses gave him position for a siege and investment; but a careful reconnoissance having given him hope of carrying the place by assault, he resolved to try that short method before resorting to the longer operations of a siege. On May 22, the attack was made in Grant's full strength, and kept up till its hopelessness became conclusively apparent.

Vicksburg was now doomed, but the Confederate troops there were still important to their own side. General "Joe" Johnston sought to relieve them by concentrating a menacing force in rear of Grant. The latter faced part of his army about and kept Johnston at bay, without relaxing his hold upon Vicksburg and its garrison. The defense was gallant and protracted but hopeless. On Independence Day of 1863, Grant came into possession of Vicksburg, with upward of thirty thousand prisoners, about one hundred and twenty-five guns and seventy-five siege pieces. On the same day, Lee began his retreat from the disastrous campaign in Pennsylvania.

Grant had now the greatest military reputation on the Union side, and when, after the battle of Chickamauga, near the end of September, the Army of the Cumberland was penned up in Chattanooga and threatened with the fate of the Vicksburg garrison, all the military operations in the West were combined and put in charge of





Grant. The numerous forces now under his command were concentrated there and made ready for action, and two months after the disaster of Chickamauga, the decisive battles of Missionary Ridge and Lookout Mountain electrified the country. Grant instantly sent a force a hundred miles to the northeast, to relieve Burnside, who was closely besieged in Knoxville by Longstreet, whose corps of seasoned troops had been sent to Tennessee from Lee's army in Virginia.

Disconnected operations over the wide field of war had been the bane of both armies. On the Union side, Grant had shown what could be done by combination on a limited scale, and popular opinion at the North was that a man had been found who could be trusted to do in the field what had been long attempted from Washington and had failed. Responsive to popular feeling, Congress made provision for a commander of the armies of the United States, and the appointment, of course, fell to Grant. At that time the Confederacy had two principal field armies, that of the east under Lee, and that of the west under Johnston. West of the Mississippi, and cut off from the rest of the Confederacy, Kirby Smith had a little military empire embracing Arkansas and Louisiana. Grant decided to take personal command against Lee and to have Sherman confront Johnston. Each was to keep his immediate antagonist fully employed and thus prevent him from giving assistance to the other. This was a happy change from old conditions, under which the Confederates had used their interior position, with its shorter lines, to compensate for their inferior strength.

In the beginning of May, 1864, simultaneous campaigns were opened against Lee, Johnston and Smith by Grant, Sherman and Banks; the last soon coming to an inglorious end. For three years every campaign against Richmond and its defending army had been dominated by civilian anxiety for the safety of Washington, and civilian decision as to how its security should be assured. When, therefore, a few days after the opening of the campaign, Grant ordered a part of the garrison of Washington to the front, in consequence of his heavy losses, there was a spasm in the War Department; but no resistance. Again, when Lee, to relieve the pressure of Grant upon himself, resorted to his old and successful tactics of a raid by way of the Shenandoah Valley to menace Washington, Grant sent only a detachment to reinforce the capital and continued his grapple with Lee.

The seat of government was now Grant's saddle, but he used his dictatorship tactfully, and his simple, frank character gave no occasion of clash or quarrel, though it took him nearly a year to end the war. What gained him all the time he needed was his persistency in keeping closed with the enemy and steadily pressing forward. Though often checked, he was never defeated; he made no retreats, he never

drew off and went into camp for reorganization. The difference between the campaign of 1864 and those of previous years is thus expressed by William Swinton, historian of the Army of the Potomac:—

“Other commanders would have fought the battle of the Wilderness and gone backward; Grant fought the battle of the Wilderness and went—forward!”

As Grant had accepted all the power, he was laden with all the responsibility, and, not gaining instant success, a serious defeat, an unmistakable retreat, or a marked pause, would have brought him down. As days lengthened to weeks, and weeks to months, people remembered Fort Donelson, Vicksburg and Lookout Mountain; they were awed, too, by Lee's great reputation, and as matters were merely going slowly and not badly, they concluded that Grant must be doing well. There was much anxiety about him; but he was not anxious, nor impatient, nor troubled in any way. The eleven months from the Rapidan to Appomattox were his golden prime. There were points of electrical disturbance—intrigues at Washington, intrigues in the army—but he discharged them harmlessly by the truthful, open, direct and simple ways that had distinguished him from boyhood. He would suffer no injustice to himself without exposing it, nor any injustice to anybody under his observation and protection, and though a man of strong partiality, he would cast off any favorite that sought to make his friendship a cloak for covert self-seeking. It needed but his manly and generous treatment of Lee and his beaten veterans at the surrender to win him the crown of universal esteem.

The Grant of Appomattox had marched very far from the Grant of Belmont and Shiloh. His many good qualities had grown and ripened; the few doubtful ones that had clouded his earlier days in the war had vanished. He was not drawn toward the vortex of politics. Johnson, succeeding the murdered Lincoln in the presidency, was full of vengeance against the leaders of the late Confederacy. He singled out the illustrious Lee as a fit subject to be brought to civil trial for treason. Lee was still Grant's prisoner of war on parole, and the latter spoke so loudly against the intended outrage, declaring that his own honor was assailed and that he would defend with his life the integrity of Lee's parole, that the obstinate and contentious President was obliged to make an ignoble retreat. Johnson, subsequently quarreling with Congress over the mode in which the lately insurgent states should be restored to full relations with the Union,





made a complete about-face and went with the extreme state-rights men in holding that they were already restored by virtue of the Constitution, and that Congress had nothing to do with the matter. He affected to treat Congress without Southern representation as an illegal and usurping body, and designed, after the manner of Cromwell with his rump parliament, to disperse it from the Capitol. For this he needed Grant and the army, but Grant declined to be used. Then he tried to separate Grant from the command of the army till he could effect his purpose, but Grant thwarted all his efforts in this direction. He scrupulously obeyed every lawful order of the President, but would not go a step further. At last Congress, finding itself supported by the people of the North, freed Grant from annoyance by the President, and by a law of doubtful validity made the general of the army independent of the President and placed its reconstruction policy under his protection.

Though Grant did not particularly desire the presidency, his friends and retainers desired it for him, and the people were more than willing, thinking that an honest soldier would be a good change from wrangling politicians. He received the Republican nomination, though Grant himself was the real party platform. No power on earth could have prevented his election.

Grant naturally began to manage the presidency according to his military standards and methods, but it could not be worked that way. Finding the party leaders in revolt, and being alike modest and loyal, he surrendered, and chose some of them for his advisers. By reason of his simplicity and inexperience, they not only advised but led him for their own selfish and ambitious purposes. Yet, as he felt himself settling into his new and strange place, he could have his way at times, and sometimes his way was the best way. He strengthened and preserved the public credit; he saved the country from a new deluge of paper currency; he balked an attempt to drift into a war with England and settled all outstanding difficulties with her by an honorable treaty; he kept the United States from intervention in the ten years' war in Cuba, and by firmness averted war with Spain at a time of popular excitement. Though he was personally upright and conscientious, his eight years of presidency were clouded by much public corruption and scandal. Some of these evil manifestations were doubtless the inevitable results of the long war, others were the outgrowth of political greed. Had Grant grappled with them as he grappled with the armies of the Confederacy, he would have added another bright star to the crown of his glory.

After Grant retired from the presidency, in 1877, he made a tour of the world and was everywhere accorded the honors bestowed upon

royalty. Thinking he could now make such a President as the country would rejoice over, he stood for a third term, but was defeated for the nomination in the Republican national convention, though he forced his rivals to combine on a dark horse to beat him. In the campaign that followed he did some political speaking and then retired to private life. To help establish his boys, he removed to New York and lent his name to a banking and brokerage business, in which one of them was admitted as a partner. It turned out to be a "sharping" concern, in which he lost all of his own modest fortune and was reduced to actual poverty. He suffered added mental distress, caused by the knowledge that many others had lost money which they had placed there, confiding in his name and supposed presence in the firm. A liberal offer for articles from his pen about his battles and campaigns, put him in funds for present needs, and, becoming afflicted with an incurable cancer, he conceived the idea of writing his memoirs, in the hope of providing for his family, after his death, by their sale. This labor of love became a race with death, and the pathetic spectacle of the dying man, in a cottage on Mount McGregor, "fighting it out," as in the old days, touched the popular heart. Whatever there was to forget, was forgotten. There was much more to remember and all was remembered, not less in the South than at the North.

By special act of Congress, he was restored to the army list with his old rank of general, and this tribute deeply affected the broken man. He died July 23, 1885, and there was some public contention as to the place of his burial. His widow chose a site in a beautiful park in the city of New York, beside the Hudson, and to that his remains were conveyed, the government providing the stateliest public funeral ever seen in America. Afterward, by public subscription, a fine mausoleum was erected over the tomb.

General Grant is thus described for this article by one who was intimately associated with him in 1864, when his military career was at its flood:—

"At the time of the Wilderness campaign, General Grant had just passed his forty-second birthday. He was an under-sized man, but full bodied and full chested. He was stoop-shouldered and walked with one shoulder advanced, so that he seemed to move sidewise. His bluish-gray eyes were rather deep set; his hair and short, full beard were brown, and he had a ruddy complexion. Usually his face was bright and animated, but he had a habit of occasionally sitting or riding for hours in complete silence, without even thinking, as he used to confess, and then he would have a rather hard, forbidding look. His dress was negligent, yet not to be called slovenly. A stranger would not suspect that he had been through the routine of



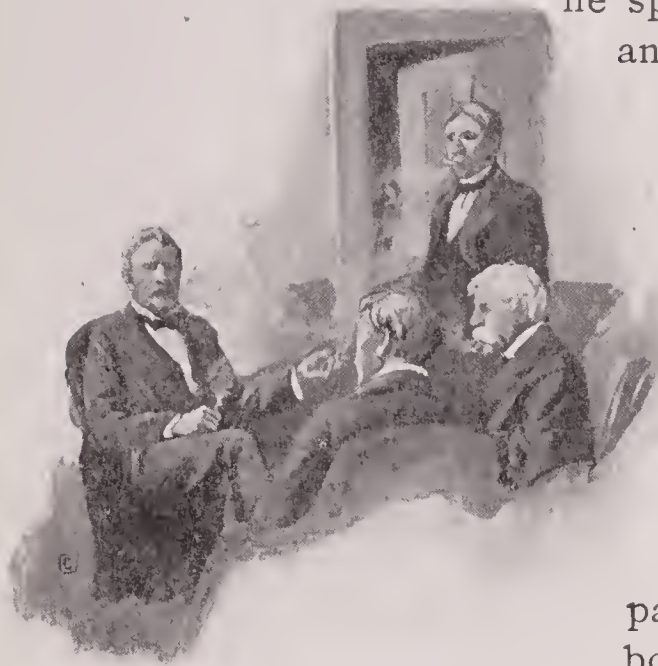
West Point and the regular army, but he had two West Point and regular army traits: anxiety for his family—army officers usually dying poor—and a particular solicitude for the care of government property in his charge, were it only a tent pole. He had a low and pleasant voice, and his speech was ‘a well of English undefiled,’ mostly Saxon words and free from profanity, obscenity, vulgarity and slang. When speaking seriously he spoke deliberately, in short sentences, aptly expressed, and as though each word had been chosen and fitted.

Among friends he was very sociable, turning everything into jest or raillery, telling and hearing stories with boyish zest, but growing frigid at a coarse word or suggestion. His own social conversation ran mostly on the old West Point, Mexican War and regular army days, and he seemed never to have forgotten a person, a name, a place or an incident, however trivial. His range of topics was extensive, but such as a man would readily acquire in ordinary intercourse, and from the daily newspaper and other current publications; if he had any book knowledge or culture, he kept it to himself.

“The general was a good horseman and looked well on horseback. On a horse, he could have borne the weight of chapeau and plumes, epaulettes, sash and all the other toggery of full dress uniform, and would not have looked bad. But he was completely indifferent to the trappery of war and martial show of every kind, and as to all such matters, he might have passed for a farmer, who had never seen a guard-mounting, dress parade or review. This apparent indifference often laid him open to a suspicion of affectation, in the minds of those who knew him but slightly.

“In those days, General Grant was approachable to everybody and free and simple in intercourse. When he had become President, he changed in these respects, holding himself stiffly to strangers until he knew who they were and their business, and sometimes becoming unexpectedly formal and even rasping to intimates who addressed him with the freedom of army days. There was certainly a great difference between the lieutenant-general of 1864 and the President of ten years later, in his second term, and even his once cheerful and inviting face showed the difference, for it had become stern in habitual expression. Still, the President could be as free as the general had been, and there was many a laugh, joke and story at the army houses where he would drop in of an evening for a smoke and a chat.

“Grant, the general, was a sanguine man, always expecting things to go well and not a bit alarmed or discouraged when they went the other way. Outwardly, he seldom seemed to have much to do, or to be doing much, or looking for anything to occupy him. In this respect he was like his chum, Ingalls, the chief quartermaster, who carried on the biggest business of the army, and was never known to be short or behind with



anything. Ingalls would saunter about from breakfast-time to dinner-time, while Grant would sit in a camp chair and smoke away the same interval, the two engaging in a short chat every now and then. Of course, in action or on the march, the general would sometimes be in the saddle and moving about for many hours, and at this kind of work he could probably have worn down the youngest man on his staff, had it come to a test of endurance. But normally he seemed to have nothing to do but to kill time, and no trouble in doing it. He was a wonderfully quiet man, both in speech and manner, whether sitting still or in motion. Nobody ever saw him in a hurry or excited about anything. The ammunition boat explosion at City Point showered him and his headquarters, and set everybody else to running about. He got up deliberately from his chair, when the noise, shock and flying shells came, looked about, and then sat down again, to wait till news of the affair should reach him. When he heard that the board wharf was afire, and that the flames were making their way toward a great store of ammunition under tarpaulins at the end of the wharf, he walked with Ingalls down to the wharf, and stood beside the nervous men that were working hose and bucket till the danger was over. There was a ticklish five or ten minutes when it seemed as though the roaring flames would make their way to the big ammunition pile in spite of everything. But new men and more buckets were constantly coming into service, and the general moved nearer the pile to have a better view of the advancing fire, and to give a quiet suggestion to the bucket men now and then, as he saw a tongue of flame projecting forward. Ingalls was on the string piece, encouraging the bucket dippers and passers to energy, and when the fire was drowned out, the two walked quietly back to headquarters, and Grant had apparently dismissed the whole subject from his mind."

GREGG, DAVID MCMURTRIE.—Born at Huntingdon, Pa., 1833. A cavalry officer in the U. S. army. He was a graduate of West Point; at the beginning of the Civil War he was made colonel of the 8th Pa. cavalry and in 1862 was promoted to brigadier-general; served through the war in the Army of the Potomac; commanded a cavalry division at Gettysburg, and in Sheridan's cavalry corps during the campaigns of 1864-65.

GREGG, JOHN IRVIN.—Born, 1826; died, 1892. A U. S. cavalry officer. In the Mexican War he volunteered as a private and gained the rank of captain; entered the service in the Civil War as colonel of the 6th Pa. cavalry and later was made a brigadier-general; his service was in the Army of the Potomac; was commissioned colonel of the 8th U. S. Cavalry in 1866, served in the West and was retired in 1879.

GREGG, MAXCY.—Born at Columbia, S. C., 1814; killed at the battle of Fredericksburg in 1862. He was a brigadier-general in the Confederate service.



GRESHAM, WALTER QUINTON.—Born at Lanesville, Ind., 1832; died at Washington, D. C., 1895. Distinguished as a politician, a jurist, and a general. He served as a division-commander in Blair's corps before Atlanta, and became major-general of volunteers in 1865. During 1869–82, he was U. S. judge for the district of Indiana, Postmaster-General (1882–84), became Secretary of the Treasury in 1884, and Secretary of State under Cleveland in 1893.

GRIERSON, BENJAMIN HENRY.—Born at Pittsburg, Pa., 1826. A cavalry officer of the U. S. army. He was major and later colonel of the 6th Ill. cavalry and reached the rank of major-general; served chiefly in Mississippi and Tennessee, and was a dashing and efficient leader; his long raiding expeditions were noted for the energy and endurance displayed; after the war he was made colonel of the 10th U. S. Cavalry, and served in the West.

GRIERSON'S RAID.—A famous cavalry expedition of the Civil War. Col. Benjamin H. Grierson, with three cavalry regiments—6th Ill., 7th Ill., and 2d Iowa—swept from La Grange, Tenn., southward to Baton Rouge, La., cutting railroads, burning bridges, and destroying supply depots and manufactories. The command started April 17 and accomplished the trip in fifteen days, reaching Baton Rouge May 2. Its total loss, killed, wounded, and missing, was but twenty-four. It was one of the most successful raids of the war.

GRIFFIN, CHARLES.—Born in Ohio, 1826; died at Galveston, Tex., 1867. An officer of the U. S. army. He was graduated from West Point and served in the war with Mexico and through the Civil War; commanded the West Point battery in the first battle of Bull Run, July, 1861; he served with conspicuous gallantry in the various campaigns of the Army of the Potomac, and in 1865 was in command of the 5th corps; he was designated by Gen. Grant to receive the arms and colors of Lee's army on its surrender at Appomattox; was colonel of the 35th U. S. Infantry at the time of his death.

GULF, ARMY OF THE.—A grand division of the Union army during the Civil War, composing the troops operating in Louisiana, Texas, and southern Mississippi and Alabama, having its headquarters at New Orleans. It was commanded first by Gen. Benjamin F. Butler and then by Gen. Nathaniel P. Banks. Its principal battles were Baton Rouge in 1862; Port Hudson in 1863; and the actions of the Red River campaign in 1864.

HACKLEMAN, PLEASANT A.—An officer of the U. S. army in the Civil War; killed at Corinth, Miss., Oct. 4, 1862.

HALLECK, HENRY WAGNER.—(1815–1872.) An American general, born in Westernville, N. Y. He graduated from West Point (1839),

enlisted in the Mexican War and was brevet captain in 1845. He was captain of engineers (1853), and the following year he left the army and began practice as a lawyer in San Francisco, and a director of a mining company. He received a commission of major-general in the army at the outbreak of the Civil War and was placed in command of the Department of the Missouri in 1861. In 1862 he controlled the military operations in the West and after the battle of Shiloh had command of the entire forces sent against Corinth. He was commander-in-chief in July, 1862, and held that position until he was superseded by Grant in 1864. After the war closed he was in command of the Pacific Division until 1869, and of the Division of the South in 1872. He published several works on international law.

HALPINE, CHARLES GRAHAM.—(Mile O'Reilly.) A soldier and writer, born at Oldcastle, Ireland, in 1829, and died, 1868. He was a graduate of Trinity College, Dublin. He came to the United States in 1852 and was associated with several newspapers. He enlisted at the beginning of the Civil War and became assistant adjutant-general on General Halleck's staff, and attained the rank of brevet brigadier-general of volunteers.

HAMILTON, ANDREW JACKSON.—(1815-1875.) A celebrated southern "Union man" during the Civil War.

HAMILTON, CHARLES S.—A volunteer officer of the Civil War. He entered the U. S. army in 1861, as colonel of the 3d Wisconsin and was promoted to major-general; served in the West and was highly commended for gallantry at Corinth, Miss., Oct. 4, 1862.

"HAMMERER, THE."—A sobriquet applied to Gen. Ulysses S. Grant, because of his constant "hammering" at the Confederate army of Gen. Lee, until he compelled its surrender.

HAMPTON ROADS (Va.), BATTLE OF.—A naval engagement of the Civil War, notable from the fact that it was the first contest between ironclad vessels in the history of maritime warfare. As such it fixed the attention of the entire civilized world; and from the principles offensive and defensive, rudely embodied in those pioneers in ironclad warfare, have grown the mighty battleships of the present day. For an account of this battle and a description of the vessels engaged—the "Merrimac" and the "Monitor"—see ERICSSON, JOHN, 175.

HAMPTON ROADS CONFERENCE.—A conference held at Fortress Monroe near the end of the Civil War. It was attended by commissioners appointed by the Confederate government at Richmond and representatives of the U. S. Government at Washington, including President Lincoln in person. Its purpose was to devise a plan, if possible, to secure a cessation of hostilities and a termination of the



war. The representatives of the two governments could not agree upon terms of peace and the conference was wholly barren of result.

HAMPTON, WADE.—Born, 1818. An American general in the Confederate service. Governor of South Carolina, 1876-79; U. S. senator, 1879-91.

HANCOCK, WINFIELD SCOTT.—(1824-1886.) An eminent soldier of the Civil War. He graduated at West Point in 1844 and served in the Mexican War; was made a brigadier-general in 1861 and a major-general soon afterward; commanded a division and later a corps, in McClellan's campaigns and at Fredericksburg and Gettysburg; at the latter he was severely wounded; was conspicuous in Grant's Virginia campaign of 1864. At Spottsylvania he charged the Confederate works at dawn (May 12), pierced the line and captured 4,000 prisoners, including Major-general Edward Johnson. In November, 1864, he was chosen to organize and command the 1st corps of Veteran Reserves. After the war, having been made a major-general in the regular army, he commanded successively the Dept. of Missouri, Dept. of the Gulf, and Dept. of the Atlantic. In 1880 he was the Democratic candidate for President, but was defeated by Garfield. He was a soldier of great valor and capacity and the idol of his soldiers, by whom he was called "The Superb."

HANOVER COURT HOUSE (Va.), BATTLE OF.—One of the engagements of the Peninsular Campaign. While McClellan's army was advancing toward Richmond, Gen. Fitz-John Porter was sent, with 12,000 men, to Hanover Court House, seventeen miles north of Richmond, to make a diversion in favor of McDowell, whose corps, which McClellan had left at Washington, was en route to join the main army, by way of Fredericksburg. At Hanover, May 27, 1862, in a sharp action, Porter defeated the Confederates under Gen. Branch. The battle resulted in the recall of McDowell's corps for the defense of Washington, while Porter rejoined McClellan at Gaines's Mill.

HARD TACK.—The name universally applied by the soldiers in the Civil War to the bread which was the chief item of the army ration. It was made in the form of square crackers, without salt or yeast of any kind, and baked, and would "keep" for any length of time. It was very hard and good teeth were necessary for its mastication. It was the same as that used on the sea, where it is known as pilot-bread.

HARDEE, WILLIAM J.—(1815-1873.) A noted officer of the U. S. and Confederate armies.

HARNEY, WILLIAM SELBY.—(1800-1889.) An officer of the U. S. army. He entered the army in 1818, served in Mexico as colonel with great gallantry and was brevetted for his good conduct at Cerro

Gordo. He was made a brigadier-general in 1858 and held various commands during the Civil War, but age incapacitated him for active duty in the field. In 1859, while in command of the department of Oregon, he took possession of the island of San Juan, which was claimed by the English, for which he was recalled. He was chiefly conspicuous for his efficient service in the far west, during the twenty years prior to 1860.

HARPER'S FERRY INSURRECTION.—Also known as John Brown's Raid. It was organized and carried out in 1859 by John Brown, a famous anti-slavery agitator, its purpose being to free the slaves. The insurrection was quelled by U. S. soldiers under the command of Robert E. Lee. Brown, and those of his band who were not killed during the fighting, were hanged at Charlestown, Va., Dec. 2, 1859.

HARTSVILLE (Tenn.), BATTLE OF.—Dec. 7, 1862, Gen. John H. Morgan, an exceedingly enterprising Confederate cavalry commander, attacked, at Hartsville, Tenn., a Union force consisting of three regiments of infantry, two detachments of cavalry, and a battery, numbering in all 1,900 men. After a weak defense, the Union commander surrendered and all were made prisoners. The Union troops were not largely out-numbered, if at all, and the surrender, after so feeble a resistance and but trifling loss, was far from creditable.

HATCHER'S RUN (Va.), BATTLE OF.—One of the battles around Petersburg, during Gen. Grant's environment of that place, in 1864. Oct. 27, in an attempt to seize the Southside Railroad, the second corps and part of the fifth corps under Gen. Hancock forced a passage across Hatcher's Run and moved upon the south side, driving the Confederates before them. The Confederates, however, turned and assailed the Federals with the utmost fury. After a desperate conflict, Hancock withdrew during the succeeding night, having lost 1,900 men. The same point was the scene of another severe engagement, Feb. 5, 1865, when Grant made another attempt to turn the Confederate flank. He succeeded in extending his own position to the westward, losing 2,000 men in the operation. The Confederate loss was about half as large.

HATTERAS (N. C.) EXPEDITION.—The first attempt by the Federals, early in the Civil War, to effect a lodgment on the Atlantic coast, south of Virginia. Aug. 26, 1861, an expedition sailed from Fortress Monroe, under the command of Gen. Butler. The vessels transported a force of soldiers for land service, while the coöperating naval force was commanded by Commodore Stringham. The point of attack was Cape Hatteras Inlet, N. C. After a short bombardment from the vessels Fort Hatteras, the principal work, was surrendered on the 29th,



with 600 prisoners, and much artillery and ordnance stores. The expedition was entirely successful in the achievement of its object.

HAZEN, WILLIAM BABCOCK.—(1830–1887.) A noted American soldier. Chief officer of the U. S. signal service, 1880–87.

HELENA (Ark.), BATTLE OF.—During the siege of Vicksburg Gen. Grant, to strengthen his army there, drew troops from all available sources and thereby weakened the forces at other points in that department. Helena, Ark.; was garrisoned by 3,000 men under the command of Gen. B. M. Prentiss. A Confederate force numbering 8,000, under Gen. Price and Gen. Holmes, marched from Little Rock to attempt its capture. On July 4, 1863, the day Vicksburg was surrendered, the Confederates made three separate attacks, but were repulsed in all, with a loss of 1,700 men. The Federals were protected by strong intrenchments and lost but 250. Learning of the fall of Vicksburg, the Confederates withdrew from Helena and abandoned the enterprise.

“HICKORY, OLD.”—A sobriquet applied to Gen. Andrew Jackson because of the strength of his character.

“HIGH-WATER MARK OF THE REBELLION.”—A popular phrase applied to the battle of Gettysburg, July 1–3, 1863. This point marked the beginning of the gradual falling away of the Confederate cause. Its decadence was regular and constant, by reason of the scant resources of men and munitions, although it was nearly two years before the end came at Appomattox. The Confederate cause never recovered from the blow it received at Gettysburg, made doubly severe by the surrender of Pemberton to Grant at Vicksburg, on the day that Lee was hastening back to the Potomac, that he might recross into Virginia.

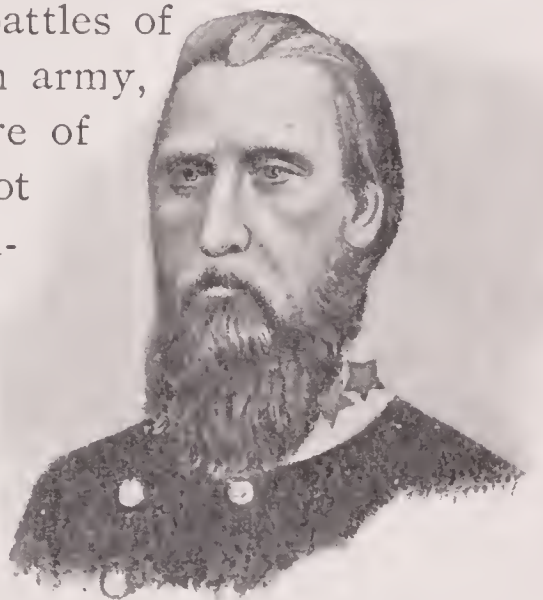
HILL, DANIEL HARVEY.—Born in North Carolina, 1821; died, 1889. A general in the Confederate army. He entered the U. S. army early in life and served with distinguished gallantry in Mexico; resigned in 1849 to become professor of mathematics in Washington College at Lexington, Va., and later superintendent of the N. C. Military Academy at Charlotte; entered the Confederate service at the outbreak of the Civil War as colonel of the 1st N. C. regiment and in 1863 reached the rank of lieutenant-general; held commands in Lee's army till 1863 when he went to Bragg's army in Tennessee and was at Chickamauga; continued in service till the end and was with “Joe” Johnston when the latter surrendered to Sherman, in N. C. (April, 1865). After the war he edited “The Land We Love” at Charlotte, N. C.; was then called to the presidency of the University of Arkansas, and later was president of the Agricultural and Military College of Georgia. He had high scholarly attainments.

## JOHN BELL HOOD

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*A valiant fighter, who failed to win battles.*

THE god of war has ever been most fickle and capricious in the bestowal of his favors. History abounds with instances of soldiers conspicuous for their courage, energy and devotion, who have uniformly failed to win the coveted laurels of victory. General Hood, a celebrated Confederate officer, was one of those whose fate it was to buffet the adverse fortunes of war. No braver man ever drew sword; none ever was more ardently loyal to the cause in which he had taken up arms. As a subordinate commander, whose duty it was to execute the orders of his chief, he was the peer of any whose names form the long roll of those who fought the battles of the Civil War. When promoted to the command of an army, and charged with the conduct of operations which were of vital and transcendent importance, while there was not the least abatement of his zeal or his personal gallantry, his record became one of repeated defeat and disaster. Though a stubborn and persistent fighter, not once did he win a battle; and in his final struggle at Nashville, near the end of 1864, his army was hurled from its intrenched position and driven a hundred miles in utter rout, with a loss of thousands of prisoners and a large part of its artillery. His career, which, during three years of the war, had been so bright with promise, thus came to a sadly pathetic end. Crushed and heartbroken, he was relieved of his command at his own request. The sun of his fame sank behind the dark clouds of humiliation and failure.



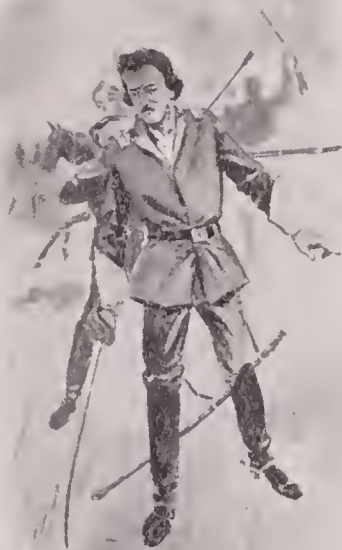
John Bell Hood was a Kentuckian by birth. He chose the profession of arms, and in 1853, when he was twenty-two years old, he graduated at West Point, in the class with Sheridan, McPherson and Schofield. He was appointed a lieutenant in the Fourth Infantry, which, at this time, was serving in California. Captain Ulysses S. Grant was its quartermaster. In 1855 the Second Cavalry, a new regiment, was organized, and Hood was commissioned one of its second lieutenants. The regiment was officered by men who won high distinction in the Civil War. Albert Sidney Johnston was its colonel, Robert E. Lee its lieutenant-colonel, and George H. Thomas and William J. Hardee



its majors. Lieutenant Hood was engaged for five years in ordinary regimental duty, varied by occasional scouting on the Texas frontier. In a fight with Indians, he was severely wounded by an arrow. In November, 1860, he was assigned to duty as chief of cavalry at West Point. At his own request, however, this order was rescinded. This post of duty was considered a most desirable one, and much surprise was expressed that Hood should have declined it. He gave as his reason that he feared war would soon be declared between the States, and he preferred to be in a situation to act with entire freedom.

At the time the "Cotton States" seceded, Hood was on leave of absence and was at his home in Kentucky. He expected that Kentucky would go with the other states of the South, and he desired that she should do so, for his personal sympathies were with the seceders. He waited, with much impatience, till the latter part of April. Sumter had fallen and the war had begun. Hood was restive and anxious to draw his sword. He became satisfied that Kentucky would remain in the Union, and he determined to enter the Confederate service from another state. He resigned his commission in the United States army, went to Montgomery, Alabama, then the Confederate capital, and entered the military service from the state of Texas. He was appointed a first lieutenant and ordered to report to General Lee, in Virginia. He was at once sent to the lower peninsula, where his service during the year 1861 was unimportant. He was rapidly advanced in rank, however, and became colonel of the Fourth Texas infantry—a regiment that made a record second to none in brilliancy. Early in 1862, Hood was raised to a brigadier-general and placed in command of a brigade composed of three regiments from Texas and one from Georgia. The brigade and its leader immediately took high rank for their fighting qualities. General Hood was conspicuous in all the campaigns and battles of Lee's army during 1862—the Seven Days' battles, Manassas, Antietam and Fredericksburg. Before the year had closed, Hood was a major-general, commanding a division.

Hood did not participate in the battle of Chancellorsville, as Longstreet's corps, to which his division belonged, was then detached at Suffolk. At Gettysburg, Hood rode into the fight at the head of his men. Very soon a bullet shattered one of his arms, and he was borne, disabled, to the rear. Before his wound had healed, his division was ordered to accompany Longstreet to the West, to reinforce the army of Bragg, near Chattanooga. Hood was scarcely fit for duty, but, with his injured arm in a sling, he buckled on his sword and took his old place. The transfer of ten thousand men was made by railroad.



Longstreet's troops reached the field of Chickamauga during the night succeeding the first day of the battle, and in the early part of the following day. General Hood was active and prominent in the fighting of Sunday, but was again unfortunate. In the afternoon he was struck in the leg by a musket ball, which inflicted a wound so severe that amputation above the knee was necessary. But Hood had no idea of quitting the field of active duty, and when spring opened, in 1864, he was again in the saddle.

Hood was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general and assigned to the command of a corps in the army of General Joseph E. Johnston. The latter had been ordered to succeed General Bragg, who had come into disfavor at Richmond by reason of the serious reverses which had befallen the army under his command at Stone River and Missionary Ridge. The Confederate army in the West had been largely reinforced and was assembled about Dalton, thirty miles south of Chattanooga. Its fighting strength was about seventy thousand men. General Sherman began the campaign to Atlanta, in the first days of May, by moving against Johnston with a hundred thousand men and two hundred and fifty pieces of field artillery. Atlanta, then an important strategic point, is one hundred and forty miles south of Chattanooga. Johnston conducted a purely defensive campaign, fighting stubbornly in his chosen positions, but yielding one after another of these as Sherman moved around his flanks. Sherman did not for an instant relax his pressure, and Johnston was steadily forced backward until, by the middle of July, he had retreated more than a hundred miles, to the line of defenses around Atlanta. The Richmond authorities were greatly dissatisfied with Johnston's conduct of the campaign, and on July 17, an order reached the army which directed him to turn over the command to General Hood. This brings us to the most important period in the latter's military career.

In the councils which, from time to time, Johnston had held with his generals, Hood had urged a more aggressive policy, that is, less retreating and more fighting. This idea, which was in favor at Richmond, he was expected to carry out when he was made commander of that army, and he lost no time in doing so. Hood was a natural fighter, and gave full exercise to his combative instincts, but the outcome showed that he was lacking in that far-seeing sagacity so necessary to the successful management of a great campaign, and in the tactical skill to direct quickly the movements of large bodies of men in the emergency of battle. Three days after he assumed the command, Hood hurled half his army with the greatest fury against a supposedly weak spot in the Union line, which was somewhat broken, owing to the confusion of crossing Peachtree Creek. A fierce conflict ensued, with



heavy losses on both sides, but Hood was wholly unsuccessful. Two days later — July 22 — took place what is known as the battle of Atlanta. With two-thirds of his army, Hood enveloped Sherman's left and fell upon the flank and rear of the Army of the Tennessee, which held that part of the Union line. It was a day of desperate fighting, but the assailants were beaten back, and again Hood suffered defeat. It was in this battle that General James B. McPherson fell. He was a gallant and accomplished soldier, one of Sherman's ablest lieutenants, and had commanded the Army of the Tennessee from the beginning of the campaign. On the twenty-eighth of July, Hood made a third attempt to pierce Sherman's line, by attacking with a closely massed force at Ezra Church. The assault was a most gallant one, but the Union troops clung to their position with the greatest tenacity and could not be dislodged.

For a month thereafter, the operations were in the nature of a siege. Sherman drew his line tightly around Atlanta, strengthening it at every point by fortifications that bade defiance to assault. Hood by this time had become more cautious, and could find no vulnerable point which he could assail with any hope of success. At the end of August, "between two days," Sherman's army disappeared from the line it had held so long. General Hood leaped to the conclusion that his adversary had raised the siege and had retreated across the Chattahoochee River. Dispatches to this effect were sent over the wires, and for a day or two there was great rejoicing throughout the South. But Sherman's army suddenly burst from the woods, twenty-five miles south of Atlanta, and attacked the two railroads which were Hood's lines of supply. Then Hood blew up his magazines, applied the torch to such military stores as he could not save, and hastily evacuated Atlanta. Sherman had fairly won the prize of the campaign.

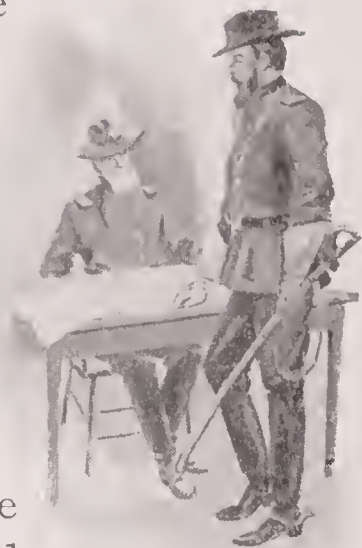
Hood believed that Sherman would allow his army a "breathing spell," after the long, arduous campaign — which has been fitly characterized as "one hundred and twenty days under fire" — and that he would not at once resume the offensive. He withdrew the Confederate army to Palmetto, about thirty miles southwest of Atlanta. His army had been reduced to forty thousand men by the constant waste of the campaign, and was greatly in need of rest and recuperation. During the month of September, Hood lay quietly at Palmetto, while his cavalry scouts closely watched Sherman, whose army was disposed in and around Atlanta. Jefferson Davis, the Confederate president, deemed the emergency so critical that he went in person to Palmetto for a conference with Hood. It was decided that a northward movement should be made, and, in a speech to the soldiers,

Mr. Davis assured them that ere long their feet would again tread the soil of Tennessee.

At the beginning of October, Hood sounded his bugles and launched forth upon his bold adventure. His purpose was to pass rapidly northward, on the presumption that Sherman would be forced to give up Atlanta and hasten back to meet the menace in his rear. Hood swung around the captured city and struck, at two or three points, the railroad to Chattanooga, which was Sherman's only line of communication. Sherman sent a large part of his army after the fleet-footed Confederates, but still held on to Atlanta, to gain which he had fought so hard and long. Hood moved with rapid strides, pausing only to fight at Allatoona Pass, where a million rations were stored. His purpose to capture these stores was foiled by the brilliantly gallant defense made by General John M. Corse. Hood destroyed the railroad in spots, as he swept northward, and when within forty miles of Chattanooga, turned suddenly westward to Gadsden, in Alabama.

Hood's movements disclosed to Sherman the purpose of the former to pass into Tennessee. "If Hood will go there," said Sherman to one of his officers, "I will give him rations to go with!" Hood did go, and by the twentieth of November, his army had crossed the Tennessee River—to him the Rubicon—at Florence. Sherman now detached the Fourth and Twenty-third corps, under the command of General Thomas, to watch and follow the course of Hood, while he assembled the rest of his army, sixty thousand strong, and started on the "march to the sea." Thomas went at once to Nashville, to direct the gathering of troops from all available sources, and the two corps detached from Sherman were temporarily placed under General John M. Schofield. His strength was about three-fifths that of Hood. He was ordered to watch Hood closely, and delay his progress as much as possible, but to avoid a general engagement until a junction could be formed with the force to be assembled at Nashville.

Hood advanced as rapidly as the execrable condition of the roads would permit, and by the twenty-seventh was at Columbia, on the Duck River, forty miles south of Nashville. Schofield, marching to interpose his force between the Confederates and Nashville, had reached Columbia a few hours earlier. The armies skirmished heavily, but there was nothing in the nature of a battle. Hood sent Cheatham's corps to take possession of the pike at Spring Hill, ten miles north of Columbia, and thus cut off the retreat of Schofield. Wagner's division of the Fourth corps, by a swift march, arrived at the threatened point an hour in advance of Cheatham. General Stanley, commander of the Fourth corps, was present in person and directed





the disposition of Wagner's three small brigades. This was so adroitly done as to present a long, though attenuated, line, well calculated to deceive the enemy as to its actual strength. Cheatham dispatched to Hood that the line looked "a little too long" for him to hazard an attack. In fact, he had three times as many men as Wagner, and another Confederate corps was already within supporting distance. Hood sent repeated messages of the most peremptory character to Cheatham, ordering him to strike at once, and throw his corps across the pike. Cheatham did advance, but the attack was so feeble that it was repelled by the single brigade of Bradley, which, however, lost heavily in the action. Hood was greatly exasperated by the failure of Cheatham to accomplish what had been so easily possible. The Confederates went into bivouac, within three hundred yards of the pike. During the night Schofield's army, which was hurrying northward from Columbia, filed past in sight of the Confederate campfires. The flankers in blue actually brushed against the pickets in gray. It cannot be doubted for an instant that a determined attack by Cheatham, even after nightfall, would have caused infinite trouble to the Union column, which was moving by the flank and in no order for battle. But nothing was done, and Schofield's men were permitted to pass in safety. They realized their danger and a fervent "Thank God!" went up from many a heart, as the gleaming fires of the enemy's bivouac disappeared behind them. General Hood, in his "Advance and Retreat," pages 287 and 290, says:—

"Never was a grander opportunity offered to utterly rout and destroy a Federal army." "The best move in my career as a soldier I was thus destined to behold come to naught."

Van Horne, historian of the Federal Army of the Cumberland, says, Vol. II., page 196:—

"Rarely has an army escaped so easily from a peril so threatening."

Schofield halted his army at Franklin, ten miles north of Spring Hill. It was necessary for him to make a stand at this point, that he might gain time to pass his long train of wagons across the Harpeth River. He expected to be attacked, and a line of strong earthworks was thrown up. The Confederate army arrived about the middle of the afternoon, and Hood determined to assault immediately. The battle which followed was not exceeded by any conflict of the war in the desperate character of the struggle and its sanguinary result. Again and again, with desperate valor, the Confederates charged into the very blaze of the muskets and cannon that fringed the crest of the

Federal works. Never did men face such a blast with more resolute courage. At one point the Union line was pierced for a moment and several hundred Confederates poured through the breach. The quick rush of Opdycke's brigade of Schofield's army, that was lying in reserve, closed the gap, and nearly all the Confederates who had leaped the works were made prisoners. The battle continued until the curtain of night fell upon the awful scene. The attack failed, and during the night Schofield withdrew his army and marched to join Thomas at Nashville. In this brief battle, which lasted scarcely more than two hours, the Confederates lost fourteen hundred killed and five thousand wounded. The loss in general officers exceeded that of either side in any other battle of the war—even including those in which the strength of the armies was three times as great. The Confederates lost thirteen generals—six killed and seven wounded. Among the slain was Major-general Patrick R. Cleburne, the best division commander in Hood's army. Schofield's army fought almost entirely behind its intrenchments, and its loss in killed and wounded was less than one-fifth that of the Confederates. The latter took some twelve hundred prisoners, chiefly from two Union brigades which were held too long in an advanced position.

Hood followed closely upon the heels of Schofield to Nashville. Two weeks later, December 15 and 16, Thomas attacked him, and on the second day swept over his works with the fury of a tornado. The Confederates fled in utter rout, and nearly all of their artillery, with thousands of prisoners, fell into the hands of the victors. It was a notable triumph and electrified the people of the North. Thomas made a vigorous pursuit of the flying foe, but Hood succeeded in getting the remnant of his army across the Tennessee River, whence he marched to Tupelo, Mississippi. Only eighteen thousand men remained of the seventy thousand with which Johnston had faced Sherman at Dalton, Georgia, eight months before.

General Hood asked to be relieved of his command, and his request was granted. His troops, under another leader, were sent to the Carolinas, where they assisted in the futile effort to oppose the northward sweep of Sherman. Hood went to Richmond and, after some time, was assigned to the Trans-Mississippi department, but before he could reach it the end came. He did not surrender until May 31, nearly two months after Lee had ceased to fight, when he rode into Natchez, Mississippi, and proffered his sword to the officer in command. He had the remarkable record of having served in every grade, from first lieutenant up to the full rank of general. After the war, General Hood made his home in New Orleans, where he died of yellow fever, in 1879.



HOOKEE, JOSEPH.—Born at Hadley, Mass., 1814; died at Garden City, N. Y., 1879. A distinguished soldier. He was educated at West Point, was a captain in the Mexican War, and was made a brigadier-general at the beginning of the Civil War; commanded a division of the Army of the Potomac in the Peninsular Campaign and a corps at South Mountain, Antietam, and Fredericksburg; Jan. 26, 1863, he succeeded Burnside in the command of the Army of the Potomac and with 120,000 men fought the great battle of Chancellorsville (May 2-4), where he was defeated. Lee then pushed the Confederate army northward into Pennsylvania, and Hooker followed, but owing to differences between him and the authorities at Washington he was relieved of the command at his own request, June 28, his successor being Gen. Meade. In the autumn of that year the 11th and 12th corps were detached from the Army of the Potomac and under Hooker were transferred by rail to reinforce the army of Rosecrans, which had been defeated at Chickamauga and was under siege in Chattanooga. In November Hooker fought the "battle above the clouds," driving the Confederates from the peak of Lookout Mt. Hooker's two corps were consolidated into the 20th and served conspicuously in the Atlanta campaign. In July, 1864, owing to incompatibility between Sherman and Hooker, the latter relinquished his command and went north. He was not again prominent during the war.

HOVEY, ALVIN P.—(1821-1891.) A U. S. army officer in the Civil War. He entered the service as colonel of the 24th Ind. volunteers and reached the grade of major-general; commanded, in 1864, in the 23d corps of Sherman's army, a division known as "Hovey's Babies" because of the large number of boy soldiers in its ranks.

HOVEY'S BABIES.—A name applied by the soldiers of Sherman's army, in 1864, to a division of the 23d corps, commanded by Gen. Hovey; so called because it was largely composed of young recruits, between the ages of fifteen and nineteen, who nevertheless made excellent soldiers.

HOWARD, OLIVER OTIS.—An American general, born in Leeds, Maine, in 1830. He graduated from Bowdoin College (1850); from West Point (1854), and became an instructor in the military academy there. He was colonel (1861), and made brigadier-general for brave conduct at Bull Run. He lost his right arm at Fair Oaks (1862), but commanded at Antietam, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, Chattanooga, and was with Sherman on his march to the sea. He was commissioner of the Free Land Bureau (1865), which position he held until its close. In 1869 he was president of the Howard University in Washington, D. C., an institution for the education of negroes. In

1877 he commanded the expedition against the Nez Perces Indians. In 1878 he defeated the Pintes, was made major-general (1886), and retired in 1894.

HUNTER, DAVID.—Born in Washington, D. C., 1802; died there, 1886. An officer of the U. S. army. He was commissioned a brigadier-general in 1861 and a major-general the same year; commanded McDowell's main column in the advance on Manassas and in the battle of Bull Run (July, 1861) and early in 1862 was ordered to the command of the department of the South, including the states of South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida. He held advanced views, like Fremont in Missouri, and issued a proclamation declaring free the slaves in his department. This was at once annulled by President Lincoln, and a curb was placed on Hunter. He held various commands during the war. He was a member of the military commission that tried the Lincoln conspirators.

HUNTER, ROBERT MERCER TALIAFERRO.—Born 1809; died, 1887; noted as a statesman. He became a Democratic member of Congress from Virginia in 1837 and 1845; U. S. senator in 1847; Confederate secretary of state in 1861; Confederate senator and peace commissioner in 1865. He was appointed treasurer of Virginia in 1877, and retired from public life in 1880. He took a leading part in framing the tariff act of 1857.

HURLBUT, STEPHEN AUGUSTUS.—Born at Charleston, S. C., 1815; died at Lima, Peru, 1882. A U. S. army officer in the Civil War and a diplomat. While young he removed to Illinois; was commissioned a brigadier-general early in 1861 and major-general in 1862; commanded a division at Shiloh, in which battle he was conspicuous for gallantry and capacity; took part in Sherman's Meridian, Miss., campaign in 1863 and in other operations till the close of the war; was U. S. minister to Colombia (1869-73); member of Congress from Illinois (1873-77), and in 1881 was appointed minister to Peru, where in the following year he was stricken with a fatal illness.

INGRAHAM, DUNCAN NATHANIEL.—(1802-1891.) An American naval officer, born in Charleston, S. C. He was a midshipman (1812); lieutenant (1818); commander (1838); captain (1855); and chief of the Bureau of Ordnance (1856). In 1853, the Greeks at Smyrna held as prisoner a Hungarian named Martin Koszta, who had declared his intention to become an American citizen. Through the personal efforts of Ingraham he was liberated. Ingraham was made commodore in the Confederate navy in 1861 and took a prominent part in many engagements.



ISLAND NO. 10 (Tenn.), CAPTURE OF.—A notable Union victory, early in the Civil War. After the fall of Fort Donelson (Feb., 1862) the Confederates took position on Island No. 10, in the Mississippi River eighty miles below Cairo. They fortified the island in the strongest possible manner. A Federal land force under Gen. Pope, with a coöperating naval squadron commanded by Commodore Foote, succeeded, with very little fighting, in compelling the surrender of the island, April 7, with all of its garrison, armament, etc. The captures were three generals, 273 other officers, 6,700 men, 123 heavy guns, 35 field pieces, 7,000 small arms, and an immense quantity of ammunition, equipage, and stores. This opened the Mississippi River, and the capture of Memphis by the Federals soon followed.

IUKA (Miss.), BATTLE OF.—Iuka is situated in northeastern Mississippi, twenty-five miles east of Corinth. Here was fought, Sept. 19 and 20, 1862, a severe battle between a large Confederate force under Gen. Earl Van Dorn and two Union divisions commanded by Gen. Rosecrans. The Confederates were defeated with a loss of 1,600 in killed and wounded; the Union loss was 650. Van Dorn secured reinforcements and a few days later made a desperate but unsuccessful attack on Corinth (which see). A feature of the fighting at Iuka was the superb gallantry of the 11th Ohio battery, the men of which stood by their guns throughout, although nearly sixty per cent. of their number were killed or wounded.

JACKSON (Miss.), CAPTURE OF.—During the operations of Gen. Grant preliminary to the siege of Vicksburg, the corps of Sherman and McPherson were sent to Jackson, the capital of Mississippi. On May 14, 1863, near the city they met and defeated a Confederate force under Gen. J. E. Johnston. The latter was driven through Jackson, losing 800 men, and the city was occupied by the Federals. All the Confederate depots of supplies were destroyed and the Federals then marched to rejoin the army of Grant.

JACKSON, HENRY R.—Born in Georgia, 1820. He was minister to Austria (1854); served in the Civil War as a brigadier-general in the Confederate army; in 1875 was elected president of the Georgia Historical Society. He died in 1898.

## THOMAS JONATHAN JACKSON

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*He made his name by standing "like a Stone Wall."*

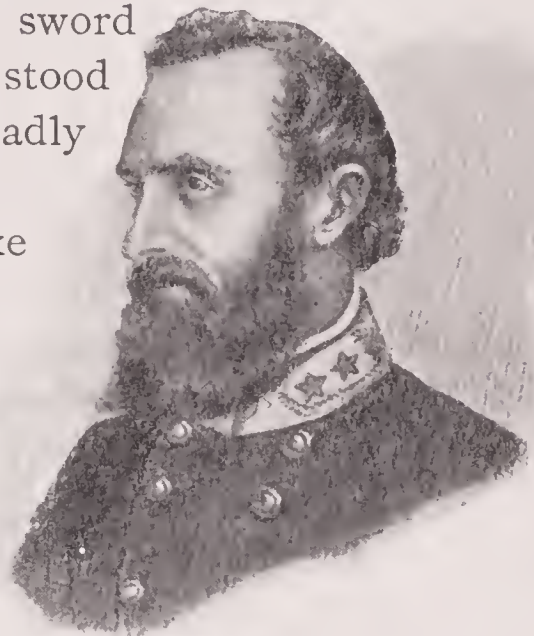
AT THE battle of Bull Run, which took place near Manassas, Virginia, July 21, 1861, in the early days of the Civil War, a Confederate brigade commanded by General Bee, began to crumble under the stress of the Federal attack. Dashing to the front of his wavering line, General Bee pointed with his sword to a Virginia brigade, under General Jackson, which stood in perfect array, not a man flinching before the deadly storm.

"See Jackson's men," he shouted, "standing like a stone wall!"

This example, and the gallantry of their own commander, were an inspiration, and its effect was immediate. The hesitating soldiers sprang to the color line and bravely set their faces to the biting blast. A few minutes later General Bee fell in death.

It was this incident that gave to the fearless leader of that Virginia brigade the sobriquet, "Stonewall." His soldiers at once adopted and applied the words of General Bee, and from that day the world knew Jackson only by that name. His fame is enduring. To-day, even the children have heard or read, in song and story, of "Stonewall" Jackson, as one of the illustrious soldiers of the country. "Stonewall" has become so fixed in the popular mind that, no doubt, most people suppose this to have been his baptismal name. Certain it is that not one person in a thousand could tell, if asked, the name by which he was christened.

Thomas Jonathan Jackson was born in Clarksburg, Harrison County, Virginia, January 21, 1824. Both of his parents died before he was three years old. His father had been a prosperous lawyer of comfortable means, but, in the latter years of his life, had lost his property by indorsing for others. His four children, of whom Thomas was the youngest, were thus orphaned and left dependent upon the bounty of friends until old enough to take upon themselves the burdens of life. In a continual struggle with poverty, Thomas was obliged to labor from childhood. His opportunity for education was limited to that afforded by an indifferent common school. He was eager for knowl-





edge, and in some degree made up by reading his deficiency in schooling. As he grew older he believed more and more in himself, and an ambition to overcome his adverse environment became his ruling passion. Earnestness of purpose was a marked feature of his character. He succeeded in whatever he undertook, because he was determined that he would not fail. His energy and capacity so impressed those about him that, at the early age of sixteen, he was selected by the officers of the county court for constable. For more than a year, he discharged acceptably the duties of this position.

From boyhood the military instinct had been strong within him. He desired to go to the United States Military Academy at West Point, and, through the influence of prominent men who had become interested in him, he was appointed cadet from his congressional district in 1842, when eighteen years of age. He was painfully conscious of his lack of educational fitness, and, indeed, he was barely able to pass the examination for admission. It was fortunate for him that the standard of qualification was not as high then as now. He applied himself to his studies with all the ardor and resolution at his command—and few of his classmates were as well equipped with these elements so essential to success. But with all his zeal and hard work, he was below the average of his class during the first year, his standing at the examination being number fifty-one. Considered in the abstract, so low a standing would have been deemed hardly creditable, and by no means an augury of future promise. To most boys it would have been a discouragement. To young Jackson, however, it was but an incentive to greater effort. He toiled day and night, on the drill-ground and at his books, with such intense application that more than once his teachers admonished him that he was working too hard and must take more recreation. The result of his labor is clearly shown by his class standing at the successive annual examinations. This rose from fifty-one the first year to thirty the second, twenty the third and seventeen at the end of the fourth year, when his academic course ended. He graduated with honor in June, 1846, at the age of twenty-two, after four years of diligent study and applied effort rarely equaled in the lives of young men.

Jackson was at once appointed a second lieutenant in the First Regiment, United States artillery, his commission bearing the date, July 1, 1846. The war with Mexico was then in progress and he was immediately ordered to active duty with the battery to which he was assigned, then at "the front." He reached his command in the early autumn and served in the field until the close of the war. He quickly won the esteem of his superior officers. His fearless courage under fire commanded their admiration, and his singular devotion to duty

their entire confidence. He participated in several severe engagements and was conspicuous among the young officers for his steadiness in the face of danger and the clearness of his judgment at critical moments. Only a mere boy, and a subaltern, it was not yet for him to win renown and the applause of the world, but he served his country with unfaltering loyalty, and was in the largest measure faithful to every trust. Tried in the fierce crucible of war, he proved that he was made of the true metal. In the fullness of time, on other and larger fields of deadly strife, with his sword he wrote his name high on the list of great soldiers who have sealed with their lives their devotion to duty and to right, as they saw the right. When the battle-flags in Mexico were furled, Jackson was not overlooked in the official recognition of those who had served with notable zeal and efficiency. He was twice brevetted "for gallant and meritorious services," giving him the honorary rank of major. From that time until the bugles of war again sounded, he was known, and profoundly esteemed and respected, as Major Jackson.

Three years longer Jackson remained in the army. Garrison life in time of peace was irksome to him. He wanted to do something, and his active, restless spirit chafed under its restraint and its dull monotony. Promotions were few and far between, and there was small chance for preferment. There was no prospect of active military service, except an occasional expedition for the chastisement of unruly Indians. Major Jackson could not brook the thought of such an inglorious and useless career, as he pictured it to himself. It was not to his taste to embark in politics, which he might, no doubt, have done with bright promise of success. All people admire a brave man, who has faced the storm of battle in defense of his country's flag, and are quick to bestow political reward for such service. But Jackson longed for a sphere of activity in which direct and useful effort might produce tangible results. His ambition demanded that there should be something to show for his having lived in the world.

So it was that when, in 1851, the chair of natural philosophy in the Virginia Military Institute, at Lexington, was offered to Major Jackson, he gladly accepted it and resigned his commission in the army. This institute is an outgrowth of a small college, known as Washington University, which had been established at Lexington early in the nineteenth century. In 1839 it was acquired by the state of Virginia and was reorganized especially for the military and academic training of young men. Jackson's course of study at West Point had given to him an excellent mental equipment for a position as instructor of young men, while his military training and practice added a peculiar fitness for an institution of this character and scope.

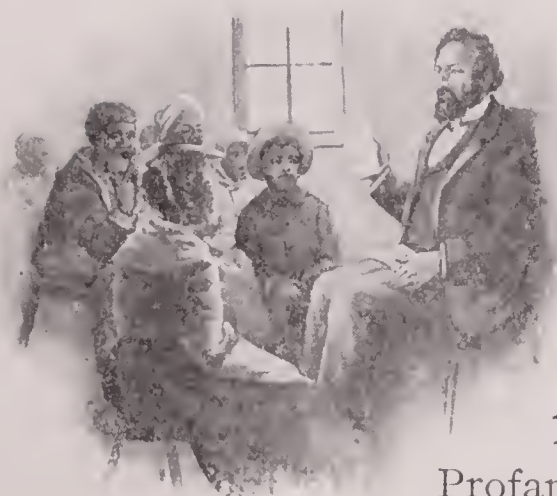


Of the years spent at Lexington by Major Jackson,—now professor,—little need be said. The insight that has been given into his character and habit of mind renders it but a natural sequence that he met, in the fullest degree, the requirements of the position. His work was congenial, and brought its reward, very dear to him, in the marked effect of his instruction and training upon the characters and lives of the youth of Virginia and other states who enjoyed the privilege of his precept and example. In discipline, he was strict and exacting, without unnecessary severity. From a child he had thoroughly disciplined himself, mentally and physically, and he knew how to guide, restrain, and correct others, tempering justice with mercy. He was grave, even serious in manner, not given to levity. He cared nothing for social frivolities, and used his influence with young persons against indulgence in such popular amusements as he believed to be pernicious in their tendency. In his intercourse with friends or strangers, he was severely polite and courteous, yet affable in manner; in conversation, reserved but always entertaining. He was extremely tenacious of his opinions, which were firmly rooted and sometimes radical, and in an argument he was rarely willing to yield his position.

As in every other phase of thought, Jackson's religious belief and conviction were strong and abiding. He had early chosen the Presbyterian faith, and connected himself with that branch of the church. His army life had not been promotive of religious development, but while at the Institute he found a wide and fertile field for sowing the "seed of the Word," as well as opportunity to cultivate his own personal piety. He was intensely religious, marked by such enthusiasm and zeal that by some he was styled a fanatic. To him religion became a

dominating force, and while at the Institute he was active and earnest in its promulgation. He exerted a great influence in this direction over the pupils; he even went so far as to organize and conduct a Sunday School for slaves. It will not be out of place to remark in this connection, that when again called to the tented field, unlike many others, he did not leave his religion at home. It was ever with him, in camp, on the march and on the battlefield.

Profanity, intoxicating liquor, cards and gambling at his headquarters were strictly forbidden. Could he have had the controlling power, these would not have been permitted at all in the army. Like Cromwell, he prayed daily, almost hourly, and, under all circumstances and conditions,—in his tent, at the camp-fire, in the saddle, by the wayside and during the lull of battle. He organized week-day prayer meetings among his soldiers, and was himself a regular attend-



ant. Divine service on Sunday, whenever practicable, was made compulsory. In his official dispatches and reports of his campaigns, he never omitted to recognize and give thanks to the God of Battles for the victories that so often crowned his arms.

A single event to stir the martial spirit occurred about two years before the breaking out of the Civil War. In 1859 the "raid" of John Brown into Virginia, at Harper's Ferry, created widespread alarm. Major Jackson, with the cadets of the Institute, was ordered to Charlestown, where Brown and several of his men, then captives, were in confinement. He remained on duty there, with his command of boys, until the danger of further violence had passed. It is a coincidence worthy of note that after the war General Robert E. Lee—whose most intimate confidant and trusted lieutenant Jackson had been, until they were separated by the death of the latter—accepted the presidency of the Military Institute at Lexington, and there died a few years later.

We now come to the last two years of the life of "Stonewall" Jackson. Eventful years they were—years of swift and mighty thought and action, of fierce conflict on many fields, of fire and blood,—at the end of which death arrested in its course his rapidly ascending star, before it had reached the zenith. Almost as the lightning, the crimsoned canvas passes before us. A volume would scarcely serve to tell in detail the story of those two years.

The thunder of cannon at Fort Sumter, in April, 1861, was the mighty reveille that aroused to arms the North and the South. Every man was at once brought face to face with the question: "Under which flag?" Jackson's positive, inflexible nature needed no time for reflection or argument. The merits of the momentous national question then at issue may not be discussed here. It will suffice to know that he believed, earnestly and sincerely, in the principles upon which the Southern Confederacy had already been organized by the "Cotton States." He believed that its cause was founded upon righteousness and justice; believed in the right of a state, or any number of states, to secede from the Federal Union. So believing, he waited only for the action of his own state. The enthusiasm for the Southern cause clearly indicated what the popular verdict would be when the people of Virginia should vote upon an ordinance of secession. Governor Letcher immediately set on foot a thorough organization of the militia of the state. The work was entered upon with the greatest energy and when, soon afterward, the ordinance was passed, a powerful force, embracing infantry, cavalry and artillery, was fully ready to be transferred to the Confederate service.

Without a moment of doubt or hesitation, Jackson resigned his professorship, unsheathed his sword, which, for ten years, had hung in



its scabbard, and offered it, and himself, to the governor of Virginia. They were eagerly accepted, and Jackson was commissioned colonel of one of the state regiments. His first service, a few days later, was to march with a force to seize the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry, with its large store of arms and machinery, for the use of the Confederate government. This was by virtue of an order from the governor. Jackson moved swiftly, and, upon his approach, the arsenal was evacuated and abandoned, by order of its commandant, after a portion of the muskets and stores had been destroyed. The machinery was removed to the South, where it was used during the war for the manufacture of arms and ammunition.

Virginia soon seceded, and, at once, upon the personal solicitation of Governor Letcher, Colonel Jackson was commissioned a brigadier-general in the service of the Confederacy. Up to this time, he was scarcely known outside of Virginia, and, within it, only as a professor at the Military Institute. Except by his friends, his former connection with the army and his service in Mexico had been almost forgotten. Many aspiring Virginians were jealous of the Lexington cadets, believing that they were given more than their share of commissions in the Confederate army, which were so eagerly sought; and this feeling extended to Jackson, by reason of his connection with the Institute.

"Who is this Thomas J. Jackson, anyway?" the governor was asked.

"I can tell you who he is," was the answer. "If you put him in command at Norfolk, he will never leave it alive, unless you order him to do so."

General Jackson was assigned to the command of a brigade composed of five Virginia regiments. Known through the war as the "Stonewall Brigade," it became famous in the history of the campaigns east of the Alleghanies. Its organization was maintained intact to the end. Its men of the rank and file, no less than its officers, took the spirit of their first leader with the name "Stonewall," and it may fairly be said that no better soldiers ever marched to beat of drum.

While the hostile governments were engaged in organizing the raw volunteers and fusing them into compact armies, a few unimportant skirmishes occurred. The first notable engagement of the war was fought in July, and is known as the battle of Bull Run. With an incident which occurred there, this biographical sketch begins, and it is scarcely necessary to say more. "Like a stone wall" Jackson and his brigade stood against the Federal assaults, or charged the foe with unflinching courage. The words and the example of Jackson gave to his men a steadiness rarely attained by soldiers who for the first time enter the vortex of battle.

The conspicuous gallantry of Jackson commanded attention. He was soon thereafter promoted to the grade of major-general and assigned to the command of a division. This consisted of three brigades—some fifteen regiments in all—one of which was his own "Stonewall Brigade," from which he would not consent to be separated. The Union army had been driven in utter rout across the Potomac and was hovering around Washington. It was clear that months must elapse before it could recover from the waste and panic of the battle and again take up the cry, "On to Richmond."

For the time, the menace to Virginia and its capital had disappeared, and General Jackson was ordered, with his division, to the Shenandoah Valley to "clear out" the small bodies of Federal troops which occupied various points in that "Garden of Virginia," engaged in work of devastation. The main body of Federals in the Valley, under General Patterson, had reinforced the army of McDowell at Bull Run and had joined in the flight to Washington. Jackson established his headquarters at Winchester and entered briskly upon his campaign. Breaking his force into detachments, he sent them swiftly from point to point and made short work of the duty which he had been assigned to perform. There was little fighting, for the name of "Stonewall" Jackson had thus early become a terror to Northern soldiers, and most of them, in small and scattered bodies, fled in dismay to Harper's Ferry. At no time was the Federal commander able to mass a force sufficient to oppose the rapid movements of the Confederates. After he had cleared the Valley, Jackson, having captured many hundred prisoners and a large quantity of stores and equipage, withdrew his troops to Winchester, where he went into winter quarters.

The year 1862 was one of almost constant marching and fighting. Operations began early in the spring, as soon as the roads were passable for army transportation. Jackson had urged an invasion of the North, and had asked that he might be permitted to cross the Potomac and carry the war into the enemy's country. Those in authority believed, however, that the time for such a movement had not yet come. Indeed, Jackson soon felt the pressure of the enemy in the Valley, and found plenty of work for himself and his men. During the winter two large forces had been organized to operate against him. One of these columns, under Banks, advanced up the Valley, while the other, under Fremont, moved from the upper Potomac toward Staunton, his purpose being to get in the rear of Jackson. The Federal commanders





hoped to crush him between them. Each of these forces much exceeded in strength that of Jackson, but the latter, nothing daunted, began a series of quick, hard blows, the effect of which was almost marvelous. Wherever he found the enemy, he at once attacked with the greatest fury, never pausing to learn whether the force outnumbered his own. He fought the Federals in rapid succession at Kernstown, McDowell, Winchester, Cross Keys, and Port Republic, winning signal victories and inflicting large losses upon the enemy. Both Banks and Fremont were discomfited and their well-laid plans came utterly to naught. Jackson's operations were brilliant, both in conception and in execution. They were entirely his own, and made him, for the time, the most famous among the Confederate leaders.

Meanwhile, during May and June, General McClellan was endeavoring to carry out the campaign which had been decided upon for the capture of Richmond. The main body of his great army was moved on transports to the lower Potomac and the James River, whence it advanced toward that city by what is known as the peninsular route. The operations of "Stonewall" Jackson in the valley threatened the safety of Washington, and, in response to the peremptory order of President Lincoln that the national capital should not be uncovered and left defenseless, McClellan was obliged to detach the strong corps of McDowell, numbering forty thousand men, for its protection. It was Jackson who thus compelled the division of McClellan's army, and made possible the Confederate successes which followed. The series of engagements known in history as the "Seven Days' Battles" resulted in the overthrow of McClellan and the complete failure of his campaign, from which so much had been expected. When the movement up the peninsula had fully developed, Jackson, with his troops, was summoned to reinforce the army defending Richmond, and took a conspicuous part in the battles of the campaign, adding fresh laurels to those he had won on other fields. General Joseph E. Johnston, the Confederate commander, was severely wounded in one of the engagements on the peninsula. His successor was General Robert E. Lee, who was then just coming into prominence. For three years, until the end came, Lee rode at the head of the Army of Northern Virginia, and the whole world paid tribute of praise to his leadership.

With the corps of McDowell as a nucleus, another powerful Federal army had been formed at Washington. Its command was given to General John Pope, who, up to this time, had operated in the West. While McClellan's baffled army was lying on the bank of the James, sheltered by the gunboats, Pope moved toward Manassas. Lee promptly advanced from Richmond to meet him. Another great battle was imminent, and, with all possible haste, corps after corps of McClellan's

army was transported back to Alexandria or Washington and pushed to the southwestward to augment the force of Pope. The hostile armies met during the last days of August. A fierce and sanguinary engagement took place, upon the same ground on which, a year before, Bull Run had been fought. Jackson was an important factor in the action, and it was there that the intimate friendship and mutual confidence between Lee and Jackson was established. Pope was defeated, and hurled back to Washington. The losses on both sides were very heavy.

General Lee now grasped the offered opportunity to carry out his long-cherished desire to pass to the northward and take the aggressive. With the utmost celerity of movement, his army swept past Washington, leaped the Potomac, and entered Maryland. The corps of Jackson was detached for the capture of Harper's Ferry and its garrison. Lee knew that in such hands the enterprise would be successful. Marching day and night, Jackson invested that stronghold, quickly disposed his forces, and demanded immediate surrender. After a feeble resistance, the white flag was displayed. Eleven thousand prisoners, nearly fifty cannon, and a vast quantity of ammunition and stores were Jackson's prize of war.

McClellan had again been placed in command of the Federal army. With all available men, horses and guns, he hastened to meet the very threatening emergency in Maryland. Baltimore, Philadelphia, Harrisburg, all were menaced by the bold movement of the Confederate army. A courier from Lee galloped to Harper's Ferry, with an order for Jackson to rejoin his chief with all speed. Leaving the division of A. P. Hill to care for the prisoners and spoil, "Stonewall," with his two other divisions, forced the march to the extreme limit of human endurance, for the need was urgent. With only an occasional halt for breath, the panting soldiers covered the distance, reaching the field while the battle of Antietam, or Sharpsburg, was in progress. Jackson plunged into the fight, and his furious blows caused the enemy in his front to reel and retire from the field. The battle was a "drawn" one, neither commander being able to claim a decisive victory. Both armies suffered prodigious losses. Lee withdrew his shattered battalions, recrossed the Potomac, and passed into Virginia. McClellan's battered army could not—at least did not—impede his retreat.

Jackson was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general, in recognition of his eminent services. At the battle of Fredericksburg, in





December, 1862, he commanded the Confederate right wing and did his full part in repelling the fierce assaults of the Federal army under Burnside. It was a signal Confederate victory, and was won at small cost, the loss of the enemy being fourfold that of Lee.

Early in May, General Joseph Hooker, with a magnificent and well-equipped army of a hundred and twenty thousand men, marched from the Federal camps around Washington, in another attempt to take Richmond. Lee faced him at Chancellorsville and drove him from the field, after a long and bloody action. The Confederate success was, in large measure, due to an enterprise which was planned and executed by Jackson, Lee consenting. On the second day of the fighting, Jackson, with nearly half of the army, made a wide detour of some twenty miles, passing entirely around Hooker's right flank and gaining his rear. The movement was not discovered by the Federals, being wholly screened from view by a dense, extended thicket of chaparral. The sun was near the horizon when the point of attack was reached. The charging column was quickly formed, and the swift feet of the soldiers soon brought them in contact with the startled enemy. The assailants pressed forward with an impetuosity that no words can describe. The shock was irresistible and overwhelming. Two of the Federal corps were routed and driven in hopeless panic. Jackson expressed a longing desire for "one hour more of daylight" in which to finish his work.

That night General Jackson, accompanied by his staff and escort, rode out beyond his line of outposts, to reconnoiter the position of the enemy. The sentinels were cautioned to watch for his return, but in the darkness the party approached the line at another point and was mistaken for a detachment of the enemy's cavalry. A volley was fired at close range, with deadly effect. Three of the missiles found a shining mark in the person of "Stonewall" Jackson. Grievously wounded, he was laid upon a litter and borne to the rear. Every effort was made to conceal the sad tidings from the soldiers, by whom their leader was loved almost to adoration. Many inquiries were made, as the illustrious sufferer was carried through the throng of men, but "A friend who has been wounded," or "A Confederate officer," was the answer given.

At length a soldier caught a glimpse of the face, and recognized the well-known features. "Great God, it's 'Old Jack!'" he said, in mingled surprise and horror. The word quickly passed from lip to lip, and many a swarthy cheek was wet with tears for the fall of the matchless captain.

The wounded officer received every possible care and attention. The next day he was removed from the field to the house of a friend,

some miles distant. Here one arm was amputated. He was attacked by pneumonia, and it soon became apparent that the end was near. At the last he was delirious and his wandering mind was with the army. His eye was alight with the fire of battle as he exclaimed:—

“Tell A. P. Hill to prepare for action!”

“Pass the infantry rapidly to the front!”

Life was ebbing fast. A few moments he was quiet, and again the lips moved. The ears of those about him caught the gentle, scarcely audible tones as he said:—

“Let us cross the river and rest under the shade of the trees.”

The eyes closed, no other word found utterance, and soon the heart of the great soldier had ceased to beat. It was the ninth of May, 1863.

Excepting only General Lee, “Stonewall” Jackson was beyond question the ablest soldier of the Confederate army, though, aside from his campaigns in the Valley, his services were always those of a subordinate to his chief. From the time that Lee took command of the army, Jackson was his right arm. In promptness and vigor of execution, he was not surpassed even by Sheridan, who was his counterpart in the Union army. His remains lie at Lexington, where ten years of his life were so pleasantly passed. The love and tender devotion to his memory which are felt by the people of the South, for whose cause he made the supreme sacrifice, scarcely exceed the respect and admiration for his purity of heart, martial spirit and military genius, which are the willing tribute of those who in war were his foes.





JAMES, ARMY OF THE.—One of the grand divisions of the U. S. army during the Civil War. It was organized early in 1864, and was chiefly composed of the 10th and 18th corps. It was auxiliary to the Army of the Potomac, and operated with it during the last year of the war. It was first commanded by Gen. Benjamin F. Butler, and afterward by Gen. Edwin O. C. Ord.

JAYHAWKERS.—At the beginning of the Civil War, bands of marauders carried on a guerrilla warfare in eastern Kansas. They were called Jayhawkers from the similarity of their methods to those of the bird of that name.

JEFFERSON BARRACKS.—This military center, situated in Missouri, a short distance below St. Louis, is one of the most important recruiting stations for the United States army. The great national cemetery near the barracks contains the graves of 11,637 soldiers. This number does not include the 812 graves at Jefferson City and the 1,614 at Springfield, Missouri.

JEFFERSON, FORT.—This important naval station of the Gulf was built on Garden Key, the largest of the Dry Tortugas. It was begun in 1846 and was intended to be the military key to the Gulf of Mexico. It is said to have cost thirty millions of dollars. All of the material used in its construction was brought thither from New York. When Florida joined the southern confederacy in the civil war, the federal garrison in the fort retained possession of it. The warships at the station patrolled the coasts in the interests of the north.

JEKYL ISLAND.—One of the Sea Islands, off the coast of Georgia. It was at this island that the last cargo of slaves ever brought to the United States was landed from the *Wanderer*. The island is now owned by a club of wealthy northern gentlemen. It is one of the finest game-preserves in the country. There is a magnificent clubhouse with spacious grounds and a sea-frontage of thirteen miles.

JENKINS, THORNTON ALEXANDER.—(1811-1893.) He was chief staff officer of Farragut's squadron in the Mississippi River during the Civil War and became rear-admiral in 1870.

JOHNNIES and JOHNNY.—A familiar epithet universally applied by the Union soldiers to those of the Confederate army, during the Civil War; analogous to the "Yankees" or "Yanks" by which the Confederate soldiers spoke of or to their antagonists.

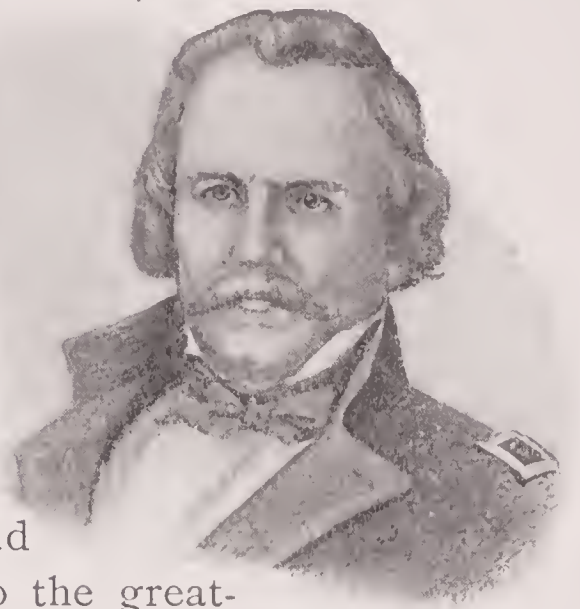
## ALBERT SIDNEY JOHNSTON

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*A great soldier whose life was ended by a bullet.*

“THEIR great chevalier,” wrote Cable, the novelist, speaking of the Southern people and Sidney Johnston, whose funeral procession at New Orleans he saw shortly before the capture of the city. “Brightest of the Southern leaders,” wrote Lew. Wallace, author of “Ben Hur.” “Lone Star of the South,” the Southern press acclaimed him, as he came from the far Pacific to answer the Southern call; referring to his preëminence among generals and his citizenship in the “Lone Star State.”

That Johnston was the pride and hope of the South in the first flush of the war of secession, the abundant official and unofficial records of the time remain to testify. His arrival in the Confederacy for the moment dwarfed everybody there, whether statesman or soldier. Many people, in times of stress and danger, have turned with eyes of faith and affection to the greatest of their great, and so turned the people of the South to Johnston. Nature had made him for a popular hero, for a nobler-looking man has rarely been seen and hardly could be conceived. Very tall, erect, and of massive, yet symmetrical build, his shapely head was a fitting crown to his figure. A high and prominent forehead, long and wavy brown hair, Grecian nose, bluish gray, deep-set and penetrating eyes, a full, well-rounded chin, and a large firm mouth, just covered and softened by an almost squarely trimmed mustache, completed the external man. His face, as a whole, told of his remote Scotch ancestry. He was half-way past his fifty-eighth year when he reported to President Davis at Richmond, to receive his commission as one of the five generals of the Confederate army.



Johnston was a son of a New England physician, who had settled and married in Kentucky. He graduated at West Point in 1826, and served as a lieutenant of infantry in the Black Hawk War and in garrison till 1834, when he resigned and joined the great American colony in Texas as a rancher and farmer. In 1836 he entered the Texan army of independence as a private, but was immediately promoted, and some time after the overthrow of Santa Anna at San



Jacinto, became commander-in-chief. In 1849 he was Secretary of War in the Texan cabinet and personally took the field against the Indians, who were very troublesome to the young republic. Then he went back to farming till called to the field as colonel of a Texan regiment, raised for service in the war between the United States and Mexico. The War Department did not accept the regiment, but General Taylor used Colonel Johnston as a staff officer, and, after the battle of Monterey, strongly recommended his appointment as a brigadier-general of volunteers. The recommendation went unheeded, as the Polk administration was jealous of Taylor's growing popularity. But Taylor, himself, became President in 1849, and, knowing that Johnston was doing poorly in Texas, made him a paymaster in the army. This appointment he held till 1855, when he was made colonel of a new cavalry regiment. In 1857 he commanded the expedition to Utah, to reduce the rebellious Mormons to obedience, and here his ability and tact raised him to the highest reputation in the army.

In the winter of 1860, Floyd, the already disloyal Secretary of War, had procured the appointment of Johnston to the command of the Department of the Pacific, hoping thereby to forward a well-matured scheme to detach California from the Union. He believed that Johnston, a Southern man, would lend himself to the scheme. In April, 1861, Secretary Seward, who had assumed the direction of affairs on the eve of the war, and had his own private military council, caused an army officer to be privately dispatched to San Francisco, there to be privately landed at the forts in the harbor, to arrange for their security, before proceeding to the city and formally relieving Johnston of the command. After the departure of this officer from New York by a steamer, a letter from Johnston was received by a former staff officer at Washington, breathing the utmost loyalty and devotion to the Union. This being shown to Cameron, the Secretary of War, he did his best to forestall the mischief by causing a message to be sent to Johnston by the overland pony express from St. Louis to San Francisco. It arrived after the secret procedure had done its work and had stung Johnston to the soul. To the offer of "the most important command" and the notification that "Sidney is appointed to the Military Academy," he replied: "I thank you and my friends for efforts in my behalf. I have resigned, and am resolved to follow the fortunes of my state."

Johnston was a devoted Union man, but had shared the original Pacific coast sentiment that the trouble was a politicians' quarrel, from which California should hold aloof, as having no part or interest in it. Conformably to this view, he went to southern California as soon

as he had turned over his command and forwarded his resignation, with the intention of again becoming a farmer, and spending the remainder of his days on the Pacific coast. But the injurious story of his intended treachery and the brilliant thwarting of it at Washington had preceded him, and he found himself watched and followed as a suspicious and dangerous character. Just at this time, when he was embittered by the bad treatment he had received, came the call of his own people to return to them. He did return, and his coming was a triumphal march. Every section of the South wanted him, but he was finally assigned to command all that part of the Confederacy west of the Alleghany Mountains, omitting the Gulf Coast.

Proceeding to his great department, Johnston found the preparations for defense deplorably feeble and scant. The Southern people had been intoxicated by the easy victory at Manassas, and were too much disposed to talk the war to a victorious end. Having about four thousand disposable troops, Johnston threw them forward to Bowling Green, Kentucky, on the chance of profiting by the bravado, and this so impressed Sherman that he told the Secretary of War that two hundred thousand men would be needed to do anything in that locality, and wrote that "if Johnston chooses, he can march into Louisville any day."

By means of their gunboats, the Federals were capable of controlling the Mississippi, and so cutting off Missouri, Arkansas and Louisiana from the Confederacy, and capable also of getting at Nashville by the way of the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, and so wresting Tennessee from the Confederacy. The eastern part of that state was for the Union in proportion of two to one—a plague spot in the midst of Johnston's fair but poorly kept field. To protect Nashville, he sent sixteen thousand men from his now largely augmented army to the strong position of Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland below Nashville, under Floyd, Pillow and Buckner, and retained fourteen thousand for the defense of the Mississippi, or for any other purpose which might arise. Thus his army was broken into two comparatively unimportant fragments. Expecting to go himself to Fort Donelson in case of need, he omitted to appoint a proper commander there and the command was vested in Floyd, an unfit man and worthless general. Pillow was but little better, while Buckner, who had merit, was junior to the two others and not on friendly terms with Pillow. It would seem that in these arrangements the Southern idol showed feet of clay. Yet it must be said that his swollen department was but a huge shell, which the Federals were almost sure to crack wherever they struck it, and, though he kept it sound for four months, Southern resources did not greatly strengthen it within that ample time.



Grant attacked and reduced Fort Donelson, capturing the greater part of the garrison, and Johnston had to let go everything north of the boundary line between Tennessee and Mississippi. Plunged into the depths of rage and despair, the people of the South turned furiously upon Johnston. President Davis wrote sympathetically and encouragingly to him, and he replied, a month after the disaster, in a manly letter, in which he said:—

“The test of merit in my profession, with the people, is success. It is a hard rule, but I think it right.”

He made Corinth, an important railway junction in northern Mississippi, his new and well-fortified point of defense, uniting such forces as he and Beauregard could collect. There the Federals intended to assail him, and there he expected to await their attack.

But information coming to him that the approaches of Grant's army, encamped twenty miles away at Pittsburg

Landing, on the Tennessee River, were negligently guarded, and that Buell's army was not yet within supporting distance, he resolved to strike a mighty blow.

His orders contemplated an attack in full force at dawn of Saturday, the fifth of April, 1862, but so much delay occurred, without necessity or excuse, that the attack was not made till twenty-four hours later.

At midnight of Saturday, the Confederate army having been formed in order of battle within striking distance of the sleeping enemy,

Johnston called together his commanders for council. He urged upon them in the strongest terms the vital importance of prompt, rapid and vigorous execution. “When we get those fellows started,” he said, “we must keep them going!” As he dismissed the officers, he said in his most impressive way, “Gentlemen, to-morrow let every command be ‘Forward!’”

The attack was a surprise to the Union army, and at first it was successful. Grant's advanced camps were carried almost without a struggle. But the Confederate formation became badly broken, and the men stopped to feast and plunder, so that much time was lost in getting them back to duty. The Federals employed the respite in recovering from the panic and taking positions to resist the evident purpose to drive them to a surrender or into the Tennessee River. The Confederate delay, and the Federal resistance in the new positions, induced Johnston to leave his headquarters and go forward for a personal survey of the immediate field. He visited various parts of it and gave an impetus to the slow but steady progress of his troops against the stubborn enemy. About two o'clock in the afternoon, he



personally directed a detachment from the reserve under Breckenridge, in carrying by a charge a firmly held Federal position, which was blocking the general advance. The charge over and congratulations exchanged, he was sitting his horse in rear of one of the reserve brigades, when a chance rifle ball from the Federal line, which was firing irregularly, severed an artery in one of his legs and he bled to death in a few minutes. His loss had no appreciable effect upon the progress of the battle, and was little known beyond the circle of the higher officers. But the Federal army was neither captured nor drowned, and its last stand, aided by the fire of the formidable gunboats, brought to it the security of night for rest and re-formation. Enough of Buell's army arrived to enable it to take the offensive the next morning and force the Confederates to abandon the field.

Next to Waterloo, Shiloh is the most controversial battle of the nineteenth century. Over it the Federals have their own quarrels and the Confederates theirs, and each side disputes with the other. Some of these differences have their origin before and others after the death of Johnston. So far as they touch him, all that seems certain, amid the mass of confusion and contradiction, is that the preparation and delivery of the attack lacked the unity, inflexibility, promptness and decision that might have been expected from an officer of Johnston's experience and great reputation. His personality did not impress itself upon the advance or the assault, as it might have done, with signal effect, if so much had not been left from the beginning to Beauregard, who was second in command, and to the corps commanders. The like inattention to details characterized Shiloh that more than a year later characterized Gettysburg, and with results alike unfortunate to the Confederate side. Napoleon at Waterloo and Grant at Chattanooga are examples of commanders personally conducting offensive operations, but Napoleon and Grant were many years younger than Johnston or Lee, and that may explain the difference.

Shiloh was another source of grief to the South. The death of Johnston, at the promising stage of the battle, restored to his memory the popularity that he had lost by the abandonment of Tennessee. His mistakes—if they were mistakes—were freely forgiven, and to the mass of the Southern people he remains "their great chevalier."



## JOSEPH EGGLESTON JOHNSTON

*Conspicuous as a soldier under two flags.*

THE trail of the war of secession is deeply furrowed by the personal hostility between the Confederate President and "Joe" Johnston, certainly one of the ablest of his generals. This hostility, beginning almost with the war itself and continuing to its end, had more than once a baleful influence upon the fortunes of the Confederacy at critical times. It is doubtful if the Southern leaders would have pressed the secession movement to the extremity of war, could they have foreseen that Maryland, Kentucky, Missouri and West Virginia would be lost to the Confederacy at the outset. When this severe disappointment came, there was no possibility of drawing back, and the early-shrunk prospects of the new alliance were further blighted by personal errors and defects that have not been generally appreciated, because of the popular delusion that the Federals had almost a monopoly of mismanagement, incompetence and heart-burnings in the early stage of the war.

Jefferson Davis was a graduate of West Point, of much service in the regular army and distinguished gallantry in Mexico. He had been Secretary of War and Chairman of the Senate Committee on Military Affairs in the Government of the United States; had been a diligent student of the world's progress in the art of war; and considered himself, and was justly regarded by others, as a very competent military man. He was not his own choice for the presidency of a new republic, to be established by force of arms, and would have greatly preferred service in the field. Being what he was, and where he was, it was inevitable that he should take to himself a large direction of the military concerns of the Confederacy, and be much influenced by his opinions of the leading field commanders, formed by long personal acquaintance with them. He was a man of sharp and unforgiving temper, much more prone to magnify cause of offense, than to overlook petty annoyances or personal differences and thus smooth the path of social and official intercourse.

"Joe" Johnston—so called to distinguish him in the army from Sidney Johnston—had reached the mature age of fifty-four, and



more than thirty years' service in the army of the United States, when the Civil War came on. He was the highest graded officer that resigned in consequence of secession, holding the rank of brigadier-general. His ability was notable and his long service had been distinguished, but he was steeped to the eyelids in military usage and tradition, and to the finger tips in service routine. He was cold and formal in manner and of exacting disposition, and there had been no previous warmth of personal feeling between Davis and himself to soften the asperities that were sure to arise between two such men when brought closely together in official relations.

Of the five full-rank generals created by the Confederate Congress, Johnston was entitled, or considered himself entitled, to stand first, having outranked the four others in the army of the United States. But by a roster arranged at Richmond in his absence, he was made junior to three who had been formerly his juniors—Cooper, "Sidney" Johnston and Lee, and senior only to Beauregard, who had stood three grades below him in the old army. However patriotic, he was not the man to endure silently such a trespass upon his rights, by all principles of military rule and practice. He personally addressed to Davis a long and by no means humble protest, in which he undertook to show that he knew the law, and accused Davis rather plainly of willful violation of it for the personal advancement of his military councilors, Cooper and Lee. Davis disdained to answer the letter and would not permit it to go upon the official files, but he wrote the name of Johnston upon his black list, and there was never afterward a spark of generous or amicable feeling between them.

Johnston's first command for the Confederacy was in Virginia, where Beauregard held the Alexandria line running through Manassas, while Johnston took station at Winchester. As soon as it became evident that McDowell's campaign was to be against Beauregard, Johnston skillfully eluded the Federal general, Patterson, who was on the lookout for just such a move, and joined Beauregard, so that McDowell had to contend with the very combination against which he supposed all necessary precautions had been taken. After the burst of exultation over the rout of McDowell's army at Bull Run, popular feeling in the South became bitter against Johnston and Beauregard because they had not then pushed on to Washington. As a matter of fact, their troops were as much disorganized as were the Federals, and, to a military mind, Washington was never in danger, despite the terrified soldiery and populace thronging its streets.

After Bull Run, Johnston commanded against McClellan, standing strictly upon the defensive, which he considered the true Confederate policy. He made his own force and his position as strong as possible,



yet was ever watchful for an opening to strike his enemy while defending himself. In his view of the military situation, the one chance for Confederate independence was to tire and wear out the North, as England had been made weary of the Revolutionary struggle. At Manassas he guarded the natural approach to Richmond by way of Fredericksburg, and when McClellan went southward and took the Fort Monroe route, he drew back from Manassas to Richmond, delaying the enemy at Yorktown and making the advance as laborious as possible. On May 31, 1862, he attempted to crush a part of McClellan's army, cut off from support on account of the flooding of the Chickahominy River by a sudden storm. The operation ought to have been fatal to McClellan, but Johnston's troops became massed and confused, owing to a mistake in their route of march upon the enemy, so that the attack was greatly delayed, missed the decisive point, and so failed of its principal object. Johnston was so severely wounded that he was out of service for six months.

On his return to duty, Johnston was put in command in the West, where matters had gone badly for the Confederacy—probably beyond the power of himself or any other man to retrieve. His health became bad and matters dragged in his wide department, where the subordinate commanders were in direct correspondence with Richmond and had really little regard for Johnston, whom they knew to be in disfavor. Johnston's duty was to hold Tennessee and Mississippi, but he was unable to enforce concert of action among his lieutenants to that end. Pemberton, who commanded in Mississippi, twice set aside Johnston's orders by the doubtful authority of councils of war of his own subordinates, and permitted himself to be shut up by Grant in Vicksburg, though Johnston had especially enjoined him to let Vicksburg go and save his large command for other operations. In Arkansas there was a large, idle Confederate force, ostensibly under Johnston's command, but really independent, and President Davis, still in actual command and aided by a large military staff, refused a suggestion to bring some of it east of the Mississippi. Johnston's efforts to get Pemberton out of the trap at Vicksburg were unavailing; an important part of his correspondence with Pemberton was betrayed to Grant by the bearer of it.

After the fall of Vicksburg, Johnston's command was reduced to Mississippi, leaving Bragg independent in Tennessee. But after Grant's crushing victories over Bragg at Missionary Ridge and Lookout Mountain, Johnston was appointed to the command of what was left of Bragg's once fine army. Johnston had now been two years and eight months in the Confederate service. His views of the true Confederate policy, the defensive-offensive—concentrating at a few important

points, and falling upon the enemy as he exposed himself in his necessary advances upon the concentrated forces — had not prevailed, and under liberal pressure and the natural love of military men for independent and important commands, the Confederate strength had been lavishly scattered at a multitude of points which would have been saved by a general triumph, but were lost in a general failure. His one success in the whole war had been the indecisive battle of Bull Run, the honors of which had been claimed by Beauregard, and the barren sequences of which had been made a shuttlecock between Davis and Johnston.

Bragg had retreated to Dalton, in northern Georgia, after his severe drubbing by Grant, and there Johnston began his preparations for meeting the Federals in what military men on both sides expected to be a final campaign. In March, 1864, Grant assumed command of all the forces of the United States, thus assuring unity and coöperation in carrying out the Federal plans. Johnston hoped that Lee might be appointed to a similar position on the Confederate side, but the general-in-chief was still Jefferson Davis, and the general headquarters remained in the executive mansion at Richmond, the worst possible place for them.

As soon as Johnston had relieved Bragg in the field, the latter was installed as military adviser at Richmond. Bragg's own view, as well as that of Davis, was that the army which Grant had sent flying from Lookout Mountain was in fine equipment and condition, and Johnston was ordered by them to employ it, with reinforcements promised him in Tennessee, in an attempt to recover that state. His own inspection of Bragg's late army showed that it was in very bad condition; large numbers of men were unarmed, shoeless and without blankets, and the mules and artillery horses were too feeble, for want of proper forage, to draw their wagons and cannon. He therefore proposed that the promised reinforcements which were to bring his army up to seventy-five thousand men should be sent to him at Dalton, and when he had beaten the enemy south of Chattanooga, he would pursue him through Tennessee. He tried to get Davis and Bragg interested in this counter-plan, but they let him and it severely alone.

Sherman began his advance against Dalton in the beginning of May, 1864, by which time Johnston had augmented his army to about fifty-five thousand men, in very fair condition. Sherman had nearly double that number, but grew weaker as he advanced, by detachments to guard his long line of supply, and reinforcements to Johnston gradually brought the latter up to a maximum strength of seventy thousand or more. Johnston's intention was to make his last stand at Atlanta, where he had prepared strong defenses, and where Sherman would be



at his weakest and Johnston at his best. The campaign from Dalton to Atlanta lasted sixteen weeks, and in a military sense was the finest of the war, each commander fully appreciating the situation and exhibiting the highest strategic genius. Sherman's purpose was to reach Atlanta—where he knew Johnston would have to fight—quickly and with the largest force possible. Johnston's aim was to delay Sherman and weaken him on the way. To bring Johnston to the place of decisive battle, Sherman had to use his superior force to flank the former out of one position after another, by which the Confederates lost nothing, for, as Sherman said, Johnston's retreats were always timely and he took everything with him.

On May 17, Johnston was disposed to hazard a battle at Cassville, but Polk and Hood, two of his three corps commanders, were so dissatisfied with the prospect, after the line of battle had been formed and skirmishing had begun, that Johnston drew off in the night. On June 27, Sherman abandoned his flanking tactics for an assault at Kennesaw, but received a bad repulse. There was much fighting in the campaign, with neither side beaten; yet the constant falling back was no doubt disappointing to the Southern soldiers, as some of the commanders have always contended. By the middle of July, however, within sight of Atlanta, the last retreat had been made, and Sherman, wary but hopeful, and Johnston, confident but still cautious, were each feinting for an opening.

On the night of July 17, came a telegram from Richmond to Johnston, saying:—

“As you have failed to arrest the advance of the enemy to the vicinity of Atlanta, and express no confidence that you can defeat or repel him, you are hereby relieved from the command of the Army and Department of Tennessee, which you will immediately turn over to General Hood.”

Ten weeks of retreat had been too much for the Southern people, especially for the people of Georgia, and as Johnston was disliked at Richmond, Davis did not stand by him as he had stood by Sidney Johnston, when he was under fire. Yet Johnston told the truth when, in his telegram announcing the transfer of command, he said:—

“Sherman's army is much stronger, compared with that of the Army of Tennessee, than Grant's compared with that of northern Virginia. Yet the enemy has been compelled to advance much more slowly to the vicinity of Atlanta than to that of Richmond and Petersburg, and has penetrated much deeper into Virginia than into Georgia.”

Sherman felt immensely relieved by the removal of Johnston, but it took him six weeks to wrest Atlanta from Hood; and the latter

threw the blame for the loss of the city upon Hardee, who had complained of Hood's promotion over him.

In February, 1865, when the Confederacy was already hopelessly in fragments, Lee was made general-in-chief. He had been opposed to Johnston's removal and instantly restored him to command. Johnston got together such remnants as he could to oppose Sherman in North Carolina, but his resistance was necessarily ineffectual. After the fall of Richmond and the surrender of Lee, his little army was the temporary refuge of the Confederate President, his military staff and his Cabinet. Under their inspiration, he negotiated a complete settlement of the war with the thorough-going Sherman, but the sweeping convention was promptly rejected at Washington. He then told his guests that he should surrender on the best terms he could get, which were those accorded by Grant to Lee, and the distinguished refugees then went further South. Johnston remained with Sherman, completing the surrender and doing his best for his men, and Sherman spoke very handsomely of him in his reports to Grant and the War Department. The friendship that grew up between the two lasted as long as they lived. Johnston died in the early part of 1891, after serving in Congress, and in a subordinate office at Washington, to which President Cleveland had appointed him as a mark of esteem.



JONESBORO (Ga.), BATTLE OF.—The last action of Sherman's campaign to Atlanta, in 1864. Sept. 1, Gen. Hood, the Confederate commander, who had become aware of the presence of Sherman's army below Atlanta, detached the corps of Hardee and sent it to Jonesboro, twenty miles south of the city. Hardee encountered there the 14th corps of Sherman and a severe engagement followed, resulting in the defeat of the Confederates. Both sides lost heavily. That night Hood evacuated Atlanta and it was immediately occupied by Sherman's troops.

KEARNY, PHILIP.—Born in New York, 1815; killed at Chantilly, Va., Sept. 1, 1862. A distinguished officer of the U. S. army. He entered the army as a 2d lieutenant in 1837; served with the French in Algiers (1839-40); won distinction in the Mexican War, losing an arm; and was brevetted major for gallantry at Contreras and Churubusco. In 1859 he was again with the French and was decorated for his bravery at Solferino; returned to the U. S. and entered the Civil War as brigadier-general, being promoted to major-general in 1862; served conspicuously in the Army of the Potomac till he fell as above, the day after Pope's defeat at Manassas. "Phil" Kearny was a born



soldier and a most gallant leader; when there was no fighting to be found at home, he sought it abroad.

"KEARSARGE," THE.—A U. S. war steamer which, under the command of John A. Winslow, sank the Confederate cruiser "Alabama," in action off the harbor of Cherbourg, France, June 19, 1864. (See WINSLOW, JOHN ANCRUM, 355; SEMMES, RAPHAEL, 316.)

KENNESAW MOUNTAIN.—One of the several high elevations, near Marietta, Ga., and about twenty-five miles northwest of Atlanta, which were occupied and strongly fortified by Gen. J. E. Johnston's Confederate army, in June, 1864. The position was an almost impregnable one, but Gen. Sherman determined to assault, and did so, June 27. The point chosen was a spur called Little Kennesaw, and the storming column was composed of one division of the 4th corps and one of the 14th corps, Army of the Cumberland, with a coöperating force on the left from the Army of the Tennessee. The assault was a gallant one, but it was repulsed. Sherman lost 3,000 men, while the loss of the Confederates was not above 500. Two brigadier-generals of the Union army, Charles G. Harker and Daniel McCook, were mortally wounded. (See ATLANTA CAMPAIGN.)

KEYES, ERASMUS DARWIN.—Born at Brimfield, Mass., 1810; died, 1895. An officer of the U. S. army. He graduated at West Point and in 1860-61 was military secretary to Gen. Scott; was made major-general of volunteers in 1862 and commanded a division, and afterward a corps, in the Army of the Potomac. He wrote "Fifty Years' Observation of Men and Events."

KILPATRICK, HUGH JUDSON.—Born at Deckertown, N. J., 1836; died at Valparaiso, Chile, 1881. A celebrated cavalry officer of the U. S. army. He graduated at West Point in 1861 and at once entered upon active service in the Civil War; though young he won distinguished honor, reaching the rank of major-general; was first appointed colonel of the 2d N. Y. cavalry but was soon placed at the head of a brigade. After many dashing enterprises during 1861-62 and 63, he served in 1864 as chief of cavalry in Sherman's army, and blazed the way during the march to the sea. During the succeeding Carolina campaign he very narrowly escaped capture, during a night attack on his bivouac by a force of Confederate cavalry. He was minister to Chile (1865-70) and was appointed to the same position in 1881, but died there the same year.

KU-KLUX KLAN.—A secret organization that was formed in several of the southern states soon after the Civil War. Its exact origin was never disclosed. It was charged against the order that its object was to suppress the negro as a factor in politics, etc., by means of intimidation and terrorization. It was claimed that a copy of the Klan con-

stitution was obtained, from which it was learned that their lodges were called "dens," the masters, "Cyclops," and their members, "ghouls." A county was called a "province" and was governed by a "grand giant" and four "goblins." A congressional district was a "dominion," governed by a "grand Titan" and six "furies." A state was a "realm," governed by a "grand dragon" and eight "hydras." The whole country was an "empire," governed by a "grand wizard" and ten "*genii*." They appeared only at night and carried banners. Their dress was a covering for the head descending over the body, holes being cut for eyes and mouth. The covering was decorated in any startling or fantastic manner. The organization outran its original plan. In many localities gross disorders and crimes were committed by persons in disguise, who were either members of the Klan or were using the disguise and methods of the order for evil purposes. A congressional investigation followed, and President Grant, in a message asked for legislation to suppress the order. The Ku-Klux act was passed in 1871, and the same year the President issued a proclamation on the subject. Soon thereafter the Klan dispersed and ceased to exist.

LANIER, SIDNEY.—(1842–1881.) An American soldier and poet, born in Macon, Ga. At the age of eighteen he graduated from Oglethorpe College. Shortly after the capture of Fort Sumter, he enlisted in the Confederate army and served in many battles near Richmond. In 1864 he was taken prisoner and confined for five months at Point Lookout in Florida. In 1867 he became a teacher in the academy, and in 1868 entered into a law partnership with his father in Macon, after which he devoted himself to the writing of verse.

LEE, FITZHUGH.—Born, 1835. An American soldier and politician, appointed major-general, 1863; a nephew of Gen. Robert E. Lee. He graduated from the United States Military Academy in 1856 and became a second lieutenant in the Second cavalry, and was severely wounded in a fight with Indians. From 1860 to 1861 he was instructor of cavalry at West Point. In the latter year he resigned his commission, joined the Confederate army and rose to the rank of major-general. At the battle of Winchester, Va., Sept. 19, 1864, he had three horses shot under him and was severely wounded. In March, 1865, he commanded a whole cavalry corps of the army of Northern Virginia until it surrendered to General Meade at Farmville. He was governor of Virginia from 1886 to 1890. He was United States consul to Havana from 1893 to the declaration of war with Spain. In 1898 he was appointed major-general of the United States volunteers. After the war he was military governor of Havana, and was afterward placed in the command of the Department of Missouri in the United States army.



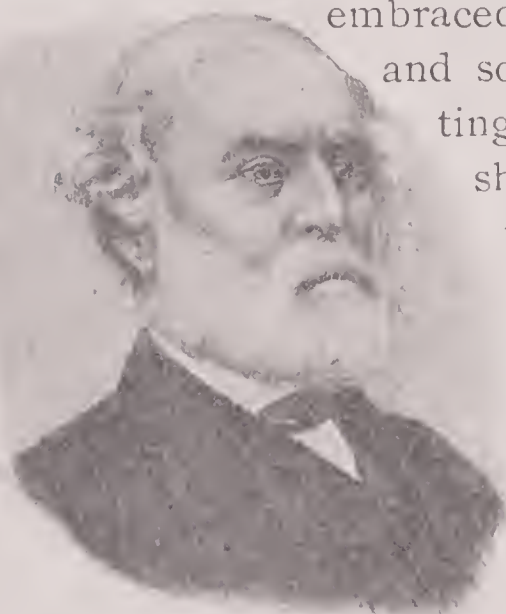
## ROBERT EDWARD LEE

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*The great soldier who sheathed his sword at Appomattox.*

BY COMMON consent, North and South, General Lee has been accepted as the greatest figure of the Civil War on the Confederate side. This judgment of his own countrymen has been ratified by the expert opinion of Europe, both in regarding his qualities and merits as a soldier, and in those larger views which have embraced the whole circumstances of the great conflict, and so brought him into comparison with the other distinguished characters of the Confederacy. That Lee should be assigned by universal agreement to that place in the South which, on the Northern side, has unanimously fallen to Lincoln, who never set a squadron in the field, is a circumstance going to prove that the estimate which has carried him so high must have some broader base than mere achievement in the field. As he was never a statesman, except so far as some degree of statesmanship may have been incident to the military measures he advised or adopted, and as he was never in political life, nor had particularly interested himself in the political matters of his time, the conclusion is inevitable that his unquestioned greatness is derived from his personal qualities; that but for the man, the commander would not have won or kept so high a place.

Lee was born to greatness. His father was "Light Horse Harry," of the Revolution, famed in song and story, distinguished by the affectionate regard of Washington, and chosen to the governorship of Virginia in days when no man of small parts could reach that exalted office. The immediate parentage of the young Robert Edward was but the center point of an unusually wide, illustrious and influential connection, to be afterward extended by his marriage with Mary Custis, heiress to the beautiful estate of Arlington, overlooking the city of Washington. When, in 1825, at the age of eighteen, he entered the Military Academy, the door was closed upon a possible political life that might and probably would have carried him to all the honors of such a career, short of the presidency, which ceased with Monroe to fall to the lot of Virginia. But though for many years doomed, in



a public sense, to the obscure life of an army officer of subordinate rank, Lee, the man, was never obscure, and all that birth, breeding and fortune could do to make life full and pleasant on its earthly side was his in ample measure. Nature, too, had been very kind, giving him a tall and well-proportioned form, features that bespoke intellect and perfect self-poise, and an expression at once kindly and dignified. Dignity of aspect, bearing and speech always characterized him, and attuned well with a courtesy that was always grave and always sincere. Only insolent or vulgar levity shrank from his presence; young children, true interpreters of nature, could be glad in the company of a man so far from and yet so near to their innocent and heedless mirth.

Appointed a brevet second lieutenant of engineers in 1829, Lee had reached only the grade of captain in that corps when, eighteen years afterward, at the age of forty, he accompanied General Scott's army to Mexico. The years had been spent in fortification and river and harbor work. His employments had carried him to many parts of the Union, in each of which his official position and personal rank and qualities introduced him to the society of the most influential people. Nullification, slavery, state rights and secession were much discussed themes in those days, and Lee, though always reserved, was not a silent man. Possibly he did not welcome, yet he did not evade, the questionings that came to him so often because of his Southern birth and distinguished connection. What he believed then is interesting now because of his after prominence and because, when the crisis came, his conduct accorded exactly with his earlier beliefs. Nullification he scouted, deeming it absurd that a state could remain in the Union and yet be above the Union in matters of Federal concern. Secession he denied to be a reserved right under the Constitution, and therefore treated it as a soft and delusive term for the inherent right of revolution, the resort to which would be right or wrong, according to whether there was or was not adequate justification for so extreme a measure. The revolution which, under the guise of the right of secession, South Carolina began in December, 1860, he condemned as unjustifiable, and, in the privacy of his own room, but with voice unwittingly audible, he prayed—for he was a pious man—that Heaven would spare his own state from following the bad example. In praying for his own state, he was praying for himself; for his path of duty, as he saw it and had always seen it, is delineated in his own words; "My loyalty to Virginia ought to take precedence over that which is due to the Federal government," but in the same breath he expressed the hope that Virginia would stand by the "old Union," as he affectionately phrased it.



In Mexico, as an engineer officer, Lee was very efficient in the siege operations, and distinguished himself greatly at the siege of Chapultepec, where he was wounded. He had reached the grade of major in his corps, and upon Scott's recommendation the brevets of lieutenant-colonel and colonel were conferred upon him for services at Vera Cruz and Chapultepec. After the war he returned to a peace routine of engineering, staff and bureau duties, till 1852, when, again upon

Scott's recommendation, he was appointed to the superintendency of the military academy, the prize of the engineer corps and, until after the close of the Civil War, always filled by an engineer officer of distinguished merit. This desirable post he left in 1855, upon the urgency of Scott, to become lieutenant-colonel of a cavalry regiment destined for service in Texas. This transfer to regimental and frontier duty was meant by Scott to forward his own wish that Lee should ultimately rise to the command of the army, for ever since their close association in the Mexican War, Lee had been the most esteemed officer in the books of the general-in-chief.

With occasional visits to his beautiful home at Arlington, during one of which he was put in command of the little Federal force that captured John Brown at Harper's Ferry, Lee spent five arduous and successful years in Texas, then still a wild state and needing hard riders and daring fighters to keep down Indians, Mexican raiders and cattle stealers. He was still engaged in this work when, upon arriving at San Antonio, on his way to Washington, in the middle of February, 1861, obedient to a summons from General Scott, he learned that Twiggs, the department commander, had, from treachery or weakness, surrendered all the military posts, stores, and property in Texas to the state authorities, and had accepted a parole for his officers and men, pledging them not to bear arms against that sovereign state. This was Lee's first contact with the fruits of secession, and, self-controlled though he was, it unmanned him. Arrived at Washington, he reported to Scott, with whom he had a painful and embarrassing interview. He knew the position of Scott, a Virginian like himself, and he knew his own position, which Scott did not know.

War was not yet imminent, but was more than possible, and Scott told Lee that if war came he was to be the principal commander in the field, and meantime he was desired to help the aged general in such preparations as were practicable in a nominal state of peace. Lee hoped that Virginia, in the approaching convention, would vote to stay in the Union, but greatly feared that personal sympathies and



business interests would carry her after the seven states that had already seceded. At last he told Scott that while nothing could induce him to take arms against the Federal Union, except in defense of Virginia, he meant to abide the action of that state. This information so obviously displeased Scott that the interview terminated stiffly, and was not renewed. Lee remained at Arlington, waiting the course of events, and determined, if war came, to fight only in Virginia, and for Virginia. He shunned the newly formed Confederacy, and trusted his state would keep out of it by not leaving the Union. He was gladdened by a decisive vote in the convention against secession, but almost immediately came the firing on Fort Sumter, the call to arms on both sides, the reassembling of the convention, and a complete reversal of the former vote. He resigned his army commission and talked of planting corn for an occupation, but the Governor sent him a commission as commanding general of the militia, which he asked him to get into a defensive state. This being within the limit he had set to himself, he went into active service. Thus began, though he did not know it, his Confederate career. He was then just past fifty-four, and looked older from exposure, hard service and recent anxiety, and when, to the solitary gray mustache, he added the full, short beard, he appeared, as he was by comparison with a majority of the Civil War commanders, a veteran.

Lee remained a militia officer till early in June, 1861, and in that character supervised the defensive preparations against the Federal invasion of western Virginia. When he went in person to that part of the state, in the autumn of 1861, he held the full rank of general in the Confederate army. He conducted an unsuccessful campaign against Rosecrans, the Federal commander. The people were on the side of his enemy, and when the approach of winter put a stop to military operations, the new state of West Virginia had already made a start.

At the opening of 1862, the five generals of the Confederate army were thus employed: Cooper, the senior, was on bureau duty at Richmond; Albert Sidney Johnston, the hope of the South, had command in the West, with his lines pushed boldly up into Kentucky; Lee was at Charleston, in command over South Carolina and Georgia, under popular eclipse from his West Virginia failure; Joseph E. Johnston was in command of the principal army, entrenched at Manassas, not far from Washington, and Beauregard was looking after matters along the Mississippi, from St. Louis down to New Orleans. The capture of Forts Henry and Donelson by the Federals compelled Sidney Johnston to abandon Kentucky and Tennessee, and retreat as far southward as Corinth, in north Mississippi. A popular cry for the



removal of the late popular idol went up to Richmond, but President Davis had too high a regard for Johnston to listen to it. As the Federals were everywhere advancing, he ordered Lee to Richmond, to act as his military adviser. Sidney Johnston, having been joined by Beauregard at Corinth, attacked the Federals at Shiloh, on the Tennessee River, and was killed in the midst of what seemed to be a signal victory. He was succeeded by Beauregard, who the next day fell back to Corinth, in consequence of the Federals having been powerfully reinforced during the night. He was soon driven out of Corinth and retreated southward to Tupelo, where, falling sick, he was relieved from command and disappeared from public view. Only "Joe" Johnston and Lee were left of the original great officers, Cooper not being available for the field.

In May, 1862, Johnston fell back from Manassas to Richmond, to meet the Federal advance by way of the Peninsula, and, on the last day of that month, was severely wounded in an unsuccessful attack upon the advanced wing of the Federal army, temporarily severed from its supports by a suddenly swollen stream. Davis put the chief of his military cabinet in command, and so began the career of Lee and his Army of Northern Virginia.

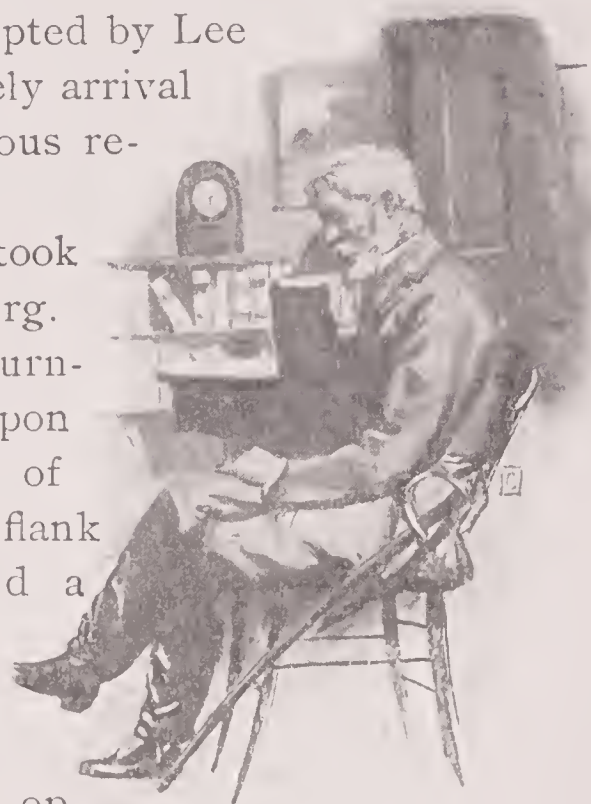
While McClellan had been advancing up the Peninsula against Richmond, "Stonewall" Jackson had carried on his wonderful "foot cavalry" campaign in the Shenandoah Valley and across the Blue Ridge, which spread havoc, confusion and terror among the disjointed Federal armies and garrisons, and so alarmed the authorities at Washington that they drew back McDowell's corps, then moving by the Valley route to join McClellan's army, to which it belonged. His mischief completed, Jackson secretly left the Valley and joined Lee in the defenses of Richmond. Together they suddenly fell on the waiting McClellan, and in the Seven Days' Battles drove him to the Federal gunboats on the James River, with heavy loss.

Meanwhile, the Federal forces in the Shenandoah Valley had been united under General Pope, an enterprising officer from the West, who pushed forward across the Rappahannock to threaten Richmond from the northwest, while McClellan should re-advance from his temporary refuge on the James River to the southeast. Lee sent Jackson, now promoted to the command of a corps, against Pope, and personally awaited McClellan's expected advance. The Federal government, however, resolved to withdraw McClellan's army from the James, and unite it with the army of Pope on the Rappahannock, for the third attempt on Richmond. Lee left Richmond to the protection of a garrison and hastened to join Jackson. Pope and the advanced detachments of McClellan's army that had joined him were driven to cover in the

defenses of Washington, with much loss of men, material and supplies, and there the Federal reunion took place under McClellan.

Leaving the impregnable defenses and the army within them to his right, Lee crossed the Potomac into Maryland, to refresh his troops and give that once friendly state an opportunity to come over to the Confederacy, and to recruit his forces. He detached Jackson to capture the stronghold of Harper's Ferry, which Jackson effected with a large harvest of prisoners and munitions of war. McClellan, with surprising celerity, had restored order in the Federal army, which had been much demoralized by successive defeats on the Peninsula and at Manassas. He moved swiftly into Maryland and brought Lee to action before Jackson could rejoin him. The desperate but indecisive battles of South Mountain and Antietam were accepted by Lee as a mandate to retire into Virginia, and the timely arrival of Jackson enabled him to make good his perilous retreat, without further loss.

Lee was now again upon the defensive, and took up his position on the heights of Fredericksburg. Here, on December 13, 1862, he was assailed by Burnside, the successor of McClellan, and inflicted upon him one of the severest repulses in the history of modern warfare. A month later, Burnside tried a flank movement by Lee's left, but a sudden thaw and a heavy rain hopelessly mired his army on its own side of the Rappahannock, and the Confederates remained undisturbed.



Hooker, who succeeded Burnside, put off active operations until the proper season. Meanwhile, he exerted himself to make the Army of the Potomac better than it ever before had been. He began his movement at the end of April, 1863, crossed the Rappahannock and took up a position which seriously threatened the safety of Lee, before the movement had been fully disclosed to the Confederate commander. Hooker had left a considerable detachment of his army in front of Lee at Fredericksburg, to hold the latter there and keep him busy, while Hooker, himself, with the main body of his forces, was threatening Lee's communications with Richmond, and making ready to fall upon the Confederate army. Between two fires, yet not unmindful of the opportunity for a concentrated action against a divided force, Lee called upon his trusty "long right arm." Thereupon Jackson marched across the front of Hooker at Chancellorsville and came suddenly upon his right and rear. Before he received a mortal wound from the mistaken fire of his own men, he completely routed two of the Federal corps and took all the fight out of the



exultant Hooker, who, sure of victory, had already issued a congratulatory bulletin to his army. This left Lee free to deal with the detached force of the Federal army under Sedgwick, which made a narrow escape back across the river. The Chancellorsville campaign carried the fame of Lee and the lamented Jackson to the highest point, for Lee had been outnumbered in the proportion of two to one, and Hooker's first operations had shown him to be no unworthy foe.

The fourth design against Richmond had now failed, and the results to the Federals had been most disheartening. Their army in front of Lee was losing its two-year regiments, which were its most seasoned troops, and nothing less than the restoration of McClellan would have induced them to reënlist. But Confederate affairs were going badly in the West, and Lee must do something to relieve the situation. He might go West himself, but Johnston, an able general, was already there. He might send a part of his army, but the Federals in his front still largely outnumbered him and he could not imperil Richmond. A successful invasion of the North would brighten matters everywhere, and the decision was made for a campaign in Pennsylvania. Lee had as his corps commanders Longstreet, his "war-horse," and the accomplished Ewell, who had succeeded Jackson, but neither was a "Stonewall." Lee took enough troops from the two corps which then composed his army to form a third, at the head of which he placed A. P. Hill, a division commander, who had long possessed his highest esteem and confidence. Ewell's corps, the van of the invading army, was then pushed forward into Pennsylvania, and had nearly reached Harrisburg when recalled to Chambersburg, for a concentration with Longstreet and Hill, suddenly forced upon Lee by the unexpected celerity and vigor of the Federal army. Hooker again had divided his force and otherwise had so displeased the military advisers at Washington, that he was replaced by Meade, in presence of the enemy and when a great battle was imminent. A chance but serious collision of vanguards at Gettysburg fixed the field of battle there, and nine o'clock the next day, July 2, 1863, was appointed by Lee for an attack by his right, under Longstreet, upon the Federal left. At that hour the Federals were in a sadly unprepared state, but were in much better trim when the attack actually occurred, which was not until the middle of the afternoon. Though badly shaken by the desperate fighting, that lasted till nightfall, they maintained their position.

All the troops on both sides, other than the cavalry, had been engaged in the battle—which had spread from Lee's right to his left—with the exception of three fine brigades of Virginians under Pickett, whose fourth brigade was on detached service when the campaign

opened, and had not yet rejoined its division. Pickett's troops had been escorting wagon trains, and arrived after the battle of July 2 was over, wild with disappointment. Lee decided to use them the next day, with proper supports, in an assault on the Federal center. Longstreet, who had always objected to sacrificing men whom the Confederacy could not replace, dissented from the proposition to assault; but Lee, who was often very pugnacious, despite his years and dignity, was firm, and Pickett was greatly pleased with his opportunity. So, about 1:30 o'clock in the afternoon of July 3, after a fierce and protracted cannonade, in which the Confederates wasted their ammunition and the Federals saved theirs for the assault they knew was coming, Pickett moved out, supported by two other divisions. The July sun was blazing hot, the half mile across the valley was broken by fences, streams, and plowed fields, and the Federal artillery fire was galling. But the three lines moved steadily forward till they came under a heavy musketry fire; yet still they advanced. They reached the Federal line on Cemetery Ridge and assailed it with the greatest gallantry. For a short time, the issue trembled in the balance. But the assailants were too weak, and, after a short and desperate fight, were beaten off, the unwounded and uncaptured survivors streaming back to the shelter of the Confederate line. Pickett's division won a shining place upon the record of valorous deeds, but the price it paid was three-fourths of its number killed, wounded or taken. This was the failure of Lee's last hope, and he retreated back to Virginia, making a narrow and fortunate escape over the angry and swollen Potomac.

All the world believed that the campaign which began in the first days of May, in 1864, when Grant, with two hundred thousand men at command, moved against Lee, would decide the issue of the war. Grant, whose successes at Donelson, Vicksburg and Chattanooga had brought the fortunes of the Confederacy to a low ebb in the West, had been made commander-in-chief of the armies. When it was announced that he would personally conduct the campaign in the East, Lee knew that he would have to strive with an antagonist who was, at least, a more persistent and obstinate fighter than he had met before. The powers at Washington had boundless confidence in Grant, and men, material and money, without limit, were placed at his disposal. The Confederate authorities, persuaded that the coming struggle would decide the question of life or death, drew to the utmost upon the limited and failing means at their command to equip General Lee for his task.

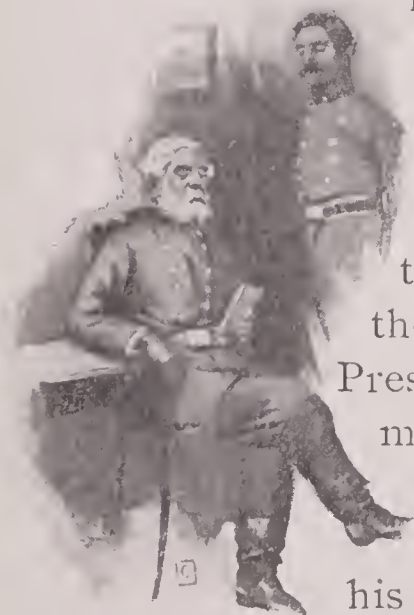
No such mighty armies had ever been assembled on this continent as those which confronted each other in the Wilderness. Grant's controlling purpose was to fight Lee, whenever and wherever he found



him; secondary to this, in his mind, was the capture of Richmond, the Confederate capital. He believed that the Confederacy could be conquered only by destroying its armies, and this must be done with cannon and musket and saber; it would profit little to capture cities so long as the hostile armies were left unscathed. It cannot be doubted that his manner of conducting war, even with its bloody harvest of death and mutilation, was, in the end, economy of life and treasure; it ended the war. But the stress upon Lee was constant and most severe. Grant's strength in men and guns was twice his own. The supply of food, clothing and munitions for his adversary was abundant and unfailing; his own was but scanty and precarious. Lee's policy, from the Wilderness to Appomattox, was a defensive one, varied only by an occasional blow, when opportunity offered.

Grant's continuous "hammering" during the first few weeks resulted in prodigious losses. At the Wilderness, Spottsylvania and Cold Harbor, and in the minor engagements that took place almost daily, more than a hundred thousand men were slain, wounded or captured. Two-thirds of these casualties were in the army of Grant. But he took no step backward, and Lee was not permitted for a moment to relax his watchfulness. In June, Grant swung his army around Richmond and planted it before Petersburg. His attempt to take that city was foiled by the swift movement of Lee. A long siege followed, and for nine months the opposing armies lay in the forts and trenches. At the end of March, 1865, one of Lee's corps was overwhelmed and almost destroyed by Sheridan at Five Forks. This prepared the way for the crowning disaster. Grant's soldiers leaped from their trenches and swept like a tornado over the earthworks of Lee, weakly defended because there were no men to fill the depleted ranks. Lee telegraphed President Davis that he could no longer hold Petersburg and Richmond. The Confederate government left the capital a fugitive, while Lee drew together the battered fragments of his army and marched to the westward. Close upon him was Grant with his host of infantry, while Sheridan, with the cavalry, harassed his flanks and blocked his way in front. Then came Appomattox—and the end.

War is a science, having the definite object of overcoming an enemy, and there is nothing to be said against Grant's method of using a strong and recuperative army to grind away to nothingness a weaker one. That Lee was fighting against time and its probabilities is true, but unimportant. Time has many chances in its train, and the happy turn of a chance sometimes brings as fortunate a result as if that result had been a foregone conclusion. Lee was the



author of no unnecessary bloodshed; on the contrary, he stopped at the very moment he became convinced that further bloodshed would be a vain sacrifice to his cause. To have stopped sooner would have been a betrayal of duty, an impossible thing to a man who had always lived in the highest regions of duty and conscience. How bitter duty was when all was lost, we may learn from the pathetic story of that great leader standing on the porch at Appomattox, in deep thought, and unconsciously smiting his hands together, while Grant and his officers draw apart, silent and sympathetic, until he shall recover himself. We have one more glimpse of him, sitting stony and speechless in the desolate house where he found temporary shelter. Then the great bitterness passes away, and the man of fifty-eight, bereft of home and vocation, takes up life's burdens anew, lives long enough to do some service in healing the wounds of war, and to have some intimations of the judgment of his country and the world upon him, and then passes serenely to the grave. "I have fought a good fight; I have kept the faith," might be his fitting epitaph.

No military critic has denied, nor will any ever deny, the genius of Lee, both strategic and tactical. The world has produced few soldiers who, under like conditions, could have continued so stoutly and so long the grapple with Grant, whose preponderance of fighting strength and exhaustless sources of supply far more than outweighed the disadvantage of an offensive campaign. Let it be admitted that in this last respect Lee had the coin of vantage; the fact remains that the world never would have excused Grant, had he, with the means at his command, failed to bring his antagonist to bay. But great and powerful as the Federal army was, it could not have achieved success without Grant—or some other leader as good as he. And while the world applauds the prowess and the tenacity of Grant, it cheerfully accords to Lee the full meed of praise for his masterful skill and the spirit and endurance of his army. If Grant had not been able to dislodge Lee at Petersburg and Richmond, the doom of the latter was still inevitable, and near; for Sherman's sixty thousand Western veterans, who had marched from Atlanta to the sea, were sweeping swiftly northward through the Carolinas, and a few days more would have brought them to the lines around the Confederate capital.



**LIBBY PRISON.**—A famous Confederate military prison in Richmond, Va., during the Civil War. It was originally a tobacco warehouse and a ship chandlery, and was named after its owner. It was chiefly used as a place of confinement for Union officers. In 1864, the prisoners dug a long tunnel by which a large number escaped. Many of them were recaptured, but a considerable number of the fugitives succeeded in reaching the Union lines. The prison was taken down in 1888, carried to Chicago, and there set up as a war museum.

**LIBERTY GAP.**—A pass in the mountains of central Tenn., about fifty miles southeast of Murfreesboro. Here took place, June 25, 1863, the principal engagement of the Tullahoma campaign, between McCook's corps of the Union army, under Rosecrans, and the Confederate army of Bragg. The fighting was very severe and resulted in the gap being carried by McCook. This was followed by the retreat of the Confederates. (See **TULLAHOMA CAMPAIGN.**)

**"LITTLE PHIL."**—A familiar name given to Gen. Philip H. Sheridan by his soldiers.

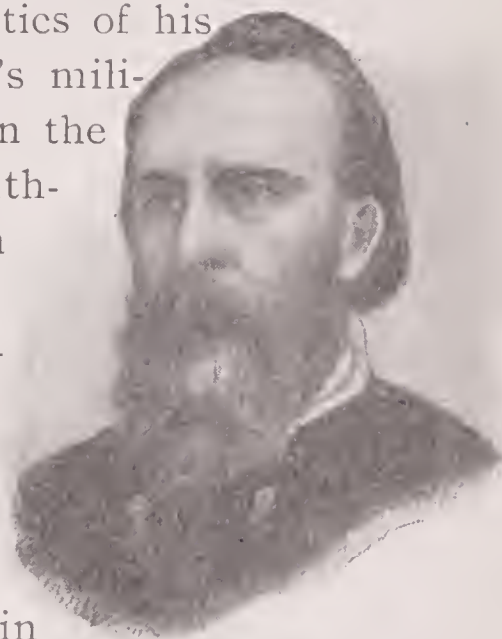
**LOGAN, JOHN ALEXANDER.**—(1826–1886.) A noted volunteer soldier and politician. He served in the Mexican War as a lieutenant in an Illinois regiment when only twenty years old. He was admitted to the bar of Louisiana in 1851, and was elected to the state legislature in the same year, and was twice reelected. In 1854 he was a presidential elector and was a member of Congress, 1859–61. At the beginning of the Civil War he entered the Union army as colonel of the 31st Illinois volunteers, but was soon made a brigadier-general and later a major-general. He served throughout the war in the Army of the Tennessee, under Grant and Sherman, leading a division, then a corps, and at the battle of Atlanta he commanded the Army of the Tennessee after the fall of McPherson. He was a lion in battle and was the idol of his soldiers, by whom he was known as "Black Jack," from his dark skin and coal-black hair. After the war he served in Congress—four years in the House and thirteen years in the Senate—until his death. In 1884 he was nominated for the vice-presidency on the ticket with James G. Blaine. He wrote "The Great Conspiracy," a political history of the war. He was largely instrumental in the organization of the Grand Army of the Republic.

## JAMES LONGSTREET

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*A famous fighter for the Confederate cause.*

LEUTENANT-GENERAL LONGSTREET, of the Confederate army, had one quality that always commands American appreciation, and is something of an American characteristic—that is to say, independence. In the military history of the Civil War, he appears as the outspoken and frequent dissenter from the campaign tactics of his commander, Lee, and sometimes from that great chieftain's military policy at large. That Longstreet was often a thorn in the side of the self-contained Lee is certain; that Lee, notwithstanding, kept him, and treated him with esteem, and even affection, is as much a proof of merit in the younger, as of greatness of soul in the older man. That same greatness of soul has not descended to those who, since Lee's death, have considered his reputation to be in their keeping; whence we have the anomaly that to find friends for Longstreet, one has to seek chiefly in the camp of the enemy. Independence Longstreet had, and, to back it up in his war-time days, he had also a historical knowledge of the art of war, equaled by that of few on either side of the conflict. The power to draw on this knowledge for comparison and example made him a formidable objector to anything he did not approve, and a caustic critic of things done against his objection which turned out badly. If the truth must be told, this knowledge gave him also a tolerably full conceit of his own opinion, which, at times, impaired the soundness of his judgment.



It was Longstreet's misfortune, so far as concerned his reputation with the Southern public, to be brought into sharp comparison with "Stonewall" Jackson, with whom he stood equal in rank, command and importance of duty, but whom he did not equal in the power or opportunity of appealing to the popular imagination, and winning popular applause. Whether he could have rivaled Jackson's confusing marches—here to-day and gone to-morrow—his fertility of resource in getting himself out of an apparent trap, or his enemy into a real one, and that sum of military qualities that has ranked Jackson with the gods of war, must remain a matter of conjecture, for their lives ran in such divergent courses that no parallel can be drawn from



them. Probably he could not have rivaled his great contemporary in those qualities that have given Jackson his distinctive fame, for, assuming his genius for war to be equal to that of the other, there would still be in the latter that impelling force of fanaticism—that soul-stirring conviction of the entire and eternal justice of his own cause, and the complete want of reason or justice in the cause of his opponents—that made him regard the Southern army as a divine threshing machine, with a manifest duty to perform. A true fanatic will always be carried by zeal beyond the normal aggregate of his powers and opportunities, and so Jackson went. Longstreet was not a fanatic. He was a Southern man, who went with the South when the great disruption came, and his only test of the rightfulness of what had been done was the rule of the majority. He was a good, loyal soldier and fought his enemy well, but he did not hate where he fought. On the contrary, when, against Jackson's fervidly pious view of the matter, it was the holy cause that went down, he proposed immediate friendship with the conquerors in the interest of the conquered. This advice fell upon hearts and tempers yet too sore to do aught but resent it, and he had to live many years under this resentment of his own people.

Longstreet was a Georgian, born across the South Carolina border. He graduated from the military academy in 1842, having just reached full age. He served at garrisons and in the Mexican War for sixteen years, when, having no prospect of rising above the rank of captain till he should have become gray-headed, he obtained the desirable appointment of a major in the pay corps. His tastes remained as they always had been, military, and he kept up his reading of wars and campaigns.

On the breaking out of the Civil War, his character as a promising officer was not overlooked, and he received an early appointment as a brigadier-general in the Confederate army. His was one of the reserve brigades in Beauregard's army at the first battle of Manassas. When the army passed under the command of General "Joe" Johnston, he was promoted to be a division commander, and, on May 31, 1862, during the Peninsular campaign, was assigned to an important part in the intended surprise of the two divisions of McClellan's army that were advancing beyond the Chickahominy. Since the war, it has been charged that on this occasion he did not comprehend the importance of his duty, and performed it in a sluggish manner. But no such view was taken at the time, and when Lee, shortly afterward, took command, he not only retained Longstreet in command of his division, but subsequently gave him the command of one of the two grand divisions or corps into which he formed the army.

Longstreet was much engaged in the Seven Days' Battles that broke up McClellan's campaign against Richmond, after which, accompanying Lee, he went across the Rappahannock and took part in the routing of Pope. His next service was in the Antietam campaign. Then followed the battle of Fredericksburg, which, though disastrous to the Federals, put no special strain on the Confederates. Hooker's badly managed campaign of Chancellorsville came next, in which the mortal wound received by Jackson left Longstreet the ranking subordinate of Lee's army.

Longstreet's attitude toward Lee had now become well defined and generally known. He believed that Lee had too great a partiality for the officers and troops from Virginia, his own state, and that it was marked enough to injuriously affect the spirit of the army. He was opposed to the spectacular raids that the cavalry was permitted to make around the rear of the Federal army, and would have had the cavalry carefully kept in condition, used for reconnoitering and flanking, and to press and break up an enemy beaten on the field. He doubted whether Lee kept his forces well enough together, as, for instance, when Jackson had been detached to invest Harper's Ferry, leaving Longstreet's corps to bear the weight of an unequal and dangerous battle at Antietam.

A marked divergence between Longstreet and his chief came after Hooker's defeat at Chancellorsville. Lee proposed an incursion into Pennsylvania, on the grounds that it would refresh the troops, relieve the South of the burden of their subsistence, for several weeks at least, and probably divide and discourage the North. Longstreet opposed the plan. He believed that to invade the North would increase its resolution and military power, and cited the unfavorable result of the Maryland campaign of the preceding autumn as an argument against another campaign of invasion. His advice was to stand strictly on the defensive near Richmond, and send the large number of troops thus set free to the West, where Grant was putting the Confederacy in deadly peril. To invade Pennsylvania would be, in his opinion, only a gigantic raid that would not affect the final result, since the ground taken could not be held. He doubted that Lee could dictate terms of peace, even from Independence Hall in Philadelphia, or the City Hall of New York, and doubted that he could get further north than Harrisburg.

Lee decided for the Pennsylvania campaign, which would require all his own troops, and a reserve of no less than ten thousand other troops, to be assembled on the Potomac, according to his requisition on the Confederate government. All that could be done for the West, therefore, would be in the way of moral effect, if the Pennsylvania



campaign should prove successful. In preparation for the campaign, Lee formed a third corps out of troops taken from Longstreet and from Ewell, who had succeeded Jackson. The command of this new corps was given to Ambrose P. Hill, a Virginian. Longstreet objected to the broken organization of the two existing corps on the eve of a campaign, without the time for the new corps to attain unity. He also thought injustice had been done, by the promotion of Hill, to some other commanders who were not Virginians.

The order of march had attached the cavalry to Longstreet's corps till the entire army should be across the Potomac and concentrated in Pennsylvania. But Stuart got permission from Lee to take the cavalry by an independent route, in consequence of which it was cut off from the army till nearly the end of the battle of Gettysburg, and Lee and his corps commanders lost its much-needed services during the advance into the enemy's country. So ignorant of what was going on, was Lee, for want of cavalry, that he supposed the Federal army to be still in Virginia when it was all over the river, and not very far from his own headquarters in Pennsylvania.

When the chance collision between one of Hill's brigades and Buford's cavalry brought on a concentration of Meade's army for battle on Cemetery Ridge at Gettysburg, Lee and his second in command again differed. The former said he was going to attack the Federals there, whereas Longstreet proposed to maneuver them out by turning their right flank, which could easily have been done. He declaimed against the irreparable loss the Confederacy had already sustained in winning battlefields without other result. If Meade should be driven from his position, he was in his own country and they had no cavalry at hand to follow him up and prevent him from repairing damages and taking up a new position. He would maneuver to compel Meade to attack Lee, or for the chance of attacking Meade where a defeat to him would be more damaging than the loss of the mere ground he occupied. Since the unexpected rapidity of the Federal pursuit had spoiled the Pennsylvania campaign, he would now maneuver to get south of Meade and strike Washington or Baltimore. But Lee said he was going to attack from Longstreet's own front, opposite the Federal left, early the next morning.

The attack was not made till the afternoon, and there is no room here to enter into the controversy over the responsibility for the delay, which lost the earliest chance of success. Again Longstreet urged the maneuvering plan, and again Lee overruled him by deciding for a center attack on the Federals, to be made by Pickett's three brigades that had not been in action, supported by some of the other troops and aided by a diversion by the cavalry, which had at last got in

touch with the army. Longstreet predicted the failure that actually occurred, and was accused of having brought it about by neglecting to properly support the attack. Lee's subsequent conduct to Longstreet does not indicate that he shared this opinion.

In the autumn of 1863, Longstreet was sent to Tennessee with two infantry divisions. At the battle of Chickamauga he commanded the left wing of Bragg's army, and gained the victory by fighting the battle his own way. He was then sent to Knoxville to drive out Burnside, but failed because Grant was able to send assistance to Burnside in time, and Longstreet made his way back to Virginia.

In the Wilderness campaign of 1864, Longstreet was wounded, but was back again at Petersburg, and was one of the twenty-eight thousand officers and men surrendered by Lee at Appomattox. His last divergence from Lee, who shunned politics after the surrender, was openly to accept the reconstruction policy and to take a political office under President Grant. But Grant and he had been friends and comrades in the old regular army, and throughout the Civil War, and afterward they maintained the warmest regard for each other. It was Grant, near the close of his life, who wrote of Longstreet:—



"He was brave, honest, intelligent, a very capable soldier, subordinate to his superiors, just and kind to his subordinates, but jealous of his own rights, which he had the courage to maintain."

This eulogy fits well the man, with strong, handsome, bearded, and characteristically Southern face, whose memory it will live to adorn.

LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN (Tenn.), BATTLE OF.—Lookout Mountain is a lofty spur near Chattanooga, terminating at the Tennessee River in an abrupt precipitous point, known as "the Nose." During the investment of Chattanooga (Oct.—Nov., 1863) after the battle of Chickamauga, the Confederate army, under Bragg, occupied Missionary Ridge as its main position, with a strong force and heavy batteries on Lookout Mountain. The Union army was doubled in strength by the arrival of Gen. Sherman, with the Army of the Tennessee, and Gen. Hooker, with two corps from the Army of the Potomac. Gen. Grant was personally in command. Preparatory to the projected attack on Missionary Ridge, Hooker, Nov. 24, with a portion of his own troops and a detachment of the Army of the Tennessee, stormed Lookout Mountain and carried it in gallant style, driving the Confed-



erates from the crest and capturing many prisoners and guns. During the action low-hanging clouds concealed the summit from view; hence the popular name often given to it—"The Battle above the Clouds." The following day the entire Confederate army was routed. (See MISSIONARY RIDGE, BATTLE OF.)

LORING, WILLIAM WING.—(1818-1886.) An American soldier who entered the army at thirteen years of age and took part in the Seminole War. He was admitted to the bar in 1842 and was a representative in the Florida legislature. He entered the Mexican War as a captain of mounted cavalry and came out a lieutenant-colonel. He served in Texas against the Indians. He entered the Confederate service as a brigadier-general, and rose to the rank of major-general. In 1869 he entered the service of the Khedive of Egypt, and rose to high rank in that service, receiving several decorations. He returned to the United States in 1879. He wrote "A Confederate Soldier in Egypt" (1883).

LYON, NATHANIEL.—(1818-1861.) An American soldier, born in Ashford, Conn. He graduated from West Point in 1841, and saw his first service in the Seminole War. He was at Vera Cruz in the Mexican War and was brevetted captain; he was wounded at the battle of Mexico. He was made a brigadier-general at the outbreak of the Civil War. He did effective work for the Union forces with the homeguards, of St. Louis, Mo. These were raw recruits drilled to great efficiency by him. He took Camp Jackson in 1861, dispersed the Confederate forces at Potosi, and defeated a body of General Jackson's state militia. At Dry Springs in August, 1861, he defeated General McCulloch and eight days later attacked a force under Generals McCulloch and Price at Wilson's Creek, where he was defeated. In this battle he was twice wounded, but kept his saddle and encouraged his men, but later his horse was killed and himself mortally wounded in the breast. His death was generally lamented.

LYTLE, WILLIAM H.—A U. S. Volunteer officer in the Civil War. He commanded a brigade in the Army of the Cumberland, under Gen. Rosecrans, and was killed at Chickamauga, Sept. 20, 1863. Author of the well-known poem, "Antony and Cleopatra," beginning: "I am dying, Egypt, dying."

MACARTHUR, ARTHUR.—Major-general U. S. Volunteers and lieutenant-colonel U. S. army, successor of General Elwell S. Otis as military governor of the Philippines, is a native of Massachusetts. He served in the Civil War with the 24th Wisconsin infantry, and in

March, 1865, was given the rank of lieutenant-colonel for gallantry in engagements in Kentucky and Tennessee, and in the Atlanta campaign. For meritorious services at Missionary Ridge he was also awarded a congressional medal of honor. In May, 1898, he was commissioned brigadier-general of U. S. Volunteers and in the following August was promoted to be major-general and given command of 2d division of the 8th corps on special duty at Havana, Cuba. Early in 1899 he was transferred to the Philippines and as major-general acted there as military governor, doing good and arduous work in suppressing the insurrectionary Filipinos and greatly restricting the area of their guerrilla operations.

MCCALL, GEORGE ARCHIBALD.—Born at Philadelphia, Pa., 1802; died at West Chester, Pa., 1868. He entered the U. S. army from West Point in 1822, and served in the Florida and Mexican wars. At the beginning of the Civil War he was made a brigadier-general and served with the Army of the Potomac, commanding, in 1862, that fine body of troops known as the Pennsylvania Reserves. June 30, 1862, he was captured and confined for several months in the famous Libby Prison at Richmond, Va. He resigned from the army in 1863.

MAGRUDER, JOHN BANKHEAD.—(1810-1871.) He was graduated from West Point, entered the army and served in the Mexican War. At the outbreak of the Civil War he offered his services to the Confederate government and was made a major-general. He served in Virginia in 1862 and was then sent to the southwest, where he commanded in Texas, Louisiana, and Arkansas, until the surrender in 1865. Magruder then went to Mexico and served for a time with Maximilian, until the latter was captured and executed.

MAHONE, WILLIAM.—Born in Virginia, 1826; died at Washington, D. C., 1895. A noted southern soldier and politician. He served in the Confederate army and was famous as a fighter, reaching the rank of major-general. After the war he became a prominent factor in Virginia politics. He was active in forming the party known as "Readjusters," which favored a readjustment of the public debt of Virginia. In 1880 it carried the state, and Mahone was elected to the U. S. Senate, in which he served from 1881 to 1887. Although he was independent of the two great parties, he usually voted with the Republicans. Before his term expired, the Readjuster party had dissolved and disappeared. Its person, Mahone was small and spare, weighing less than one hundred pounds. His fighting propensities were conspicuous in politics as in war, and he was a unique and striking character of his time.



MALVERN HILL (Va.), BATTLE OF.—This was the last of the series of engagements known as the “Seven Days’ Battles” at the close of the Peninsular Campaign against Richmond (May–June, 1862). The Union army, under McClellan, had steadily retreated, fighting daily to beat off the active Confederates. On the morning of July 1, McClellan took up a strong position on Malvern Hill—a high plateau near the James River. A large number of cannon were posted advantageously for defense. The Confederates attacked with great energy and bravery, but were able to accomplish nothing and after five hours of hard fighting they drew off, after having sustained a heavy loss. That of the Union army was comparatively small. During the night McClellan continued his retreat and reached Harrison’s Landing, on the James River, where his army was covered by the gunboats.

MANASSAS (Va.), BATTLE OF.—This notable battle of the Civil War was fought Aug. 29 and 30, 1862, on almost the same spot on which took place the battle of Bull Run, July 21, 1861. To distinguish between them, the latter of these engagements is usually called the battle of Manassas; the Confederates styled it the battle of Groveton, the name of a small hamlet on the field. After McClellan had been baffled in his attempt to take Richmond by way of the Peninsula (May–June, 1862), and while his army was lying at Harrison’s Landing, on the James River, another army was organized near Washington. It was composed of the troops of McDowell, Banks, and Fremont, and its command was given to Gen. John Pope. During August he advanced by the direct route and threatened Richmond. He was opposed by “Stonewall” Jackson, who held him in check until Gen. Lee arrived with a strong Confederate reinforcement from the Peninsula. Several corps of the Army of the Potomac were transported by steamboats to Alexandria and pushed out to augment the force of Pope. The battle at Manassas was desperately fought and resulted in Pope’s army being defeated, and driven in much disorder back to the line of the Potomac, causing for a time great apprehension and alarm at Washington. That this was not wholly groundless, was shown by the immediate campaign of Lee north of the Potomac, into Maryland, culminating in the battle of Antietam. As a result of the defeat at Manassas, Gen. Pope filed charges against Gen. Fitz-John Porter, alleging that he had failed to obey his orders and thereby contributed largely to the disastrous result of the battle. Porter was tried by a court-martial and was convicted and cashiered. Twenty-three years later, largely through the influence of Gen. Grant, who believed that injustice had been done, the action of the court was reversed and Porter was re-

stored to the army. The Federal loss in the battle was above 13,000; that of the Confederates was about 8,000.

MANSFIELD, JOSEPH KING FENNO.—Born in New Haven, Conn., 1803; died Sept. 18, 1862, from a wound received in the battle of Antietam, Md. He was an officer of high capacity and merit and commanded a corps in the Army of the Potomac, at the head of which he received his fatal wound.

MANSFIELD (La.), BATTLE OF.—This is sometimes known as the battle of Sabine Cross-Roads. General Banks's army had been concentrated at Alexandria, La. On March 25, 1864, it advanced up the Red River by way of Natchitoches, Pleasant Hill, and Mansfield, toward Shreveport. It arrived at Sabine Cross-Roads on April 8, and there encountered a part of General Kirby Smith's Confederate army under General Richard Taylor. The Confederates made the attack and General Banks lost 3,000 killed, wounded and missing. General Smith reported the total Confederate loss at 2,000. The Confederates took nineteen guns and a great quantity of ammunition.

MARCH TO THE SEA.—The famous march of Gen. William T. Sherman from Atlanta to Savannah, through the heart of Georgia, in Nov. and Dec., 1864. After the capture of Atlanta by Sherman (Sept. 1, 1864), Gen. Hood led the Confederate army northward for a campaign in Tennessee, his purpose being to draw Sherman away from Atlanta. Leaving a detachment to occupy the city, Sherman followed with the greater part of his army. As soon as he was fully convinced of Hood's intention to pass north of the Tennessee River, he detached the 4th and 23d corps under Gen. Thomas, to take care of Hood, and with the rest of his forces, he hurried back to Atlanta. He destroyed a large portion of the city and with 60,000 men started, Nov. 15, for the seacoast. His ultimate purpose was to pass northward into Virginia and join his army to that of Grant. The march to Savannah occupied twenty-seven days. No serious opposition was encountered, for nearly all the fighting men of the Confederacy were in the armies of Lee and Hood. Every possible effort was made to harass Sherman and impede his march, but no body of troops could be collected that was able to stand for an hour against the momentum of Sherman's columns. There was some fighting now and then, but Sherman's losses during the entire campaign up to the capture of Savannah were but 600. Supplies along the line of march were abundant. They were gathered daily by a regularly organized force of foragers, and the exploits of "Sherman's Bummers" became historic as a feature of the war. The army reached the seacoast with



its men and animals in the best possible condition. During this march Gen. Howard commanded the right wing, consisting of the 15th and 17th corps, and Gen. Slocum the left wing, comprising the 14th and 20th corps. The cavalry corps was commanded by Gen. Kilpatrick.

MARCY, RANDOLPH BARNES.—Born at Greenwich, Mass., 1812; died at Orange, N. J., 1887. A general, father-in-law of Gen. McClellan. He graduated at West Point in 1832; served in the Mexican War, during which he was appointed captain; was appointed chief of staff to Gen. McClellan in 1861; was commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers in the same year; was made inspector-general of the U. S. army in 1868; was retired in 1881. Among his writings are "Explorations of the Red River in 1852," "The Prairie Traveller," and "Thirty Years of Army Life on the Border."

## GEORGE BRINTON MCCLELLAN

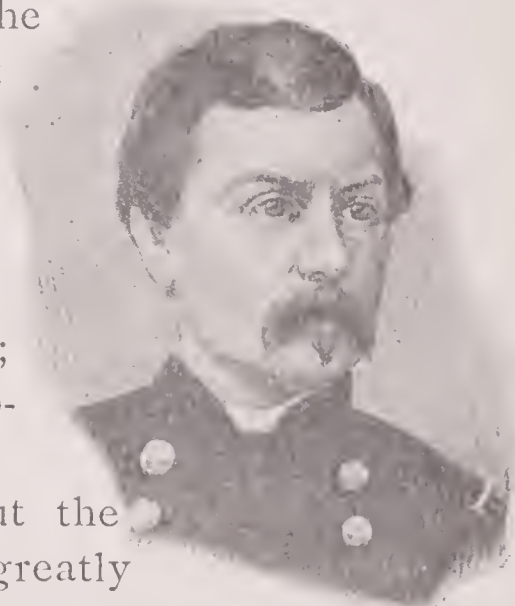
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*Who fashioned the Army of the Potomac.*

SOLDIERS of all nations take to themselves the right of the largest freedom with the names of their commanders. It is in no sense contrary to good discipline, or at variance with the profound respect which a soldier should have for his superior officer, if he applies to him a familiar nickname or sobriquet, suggested by some peculiarity of habit or physical feature. The fact that he does so is of itself the strongest possible evidence that the officer has a warm place in his affections. To his soldiers General Grant was "The Old Man"; Sherman was "Uncle Billy" or "Old Tecump"; Thomas, "Old Pap" or "Slow-trot"; Sheridan, "Little Phil"; Hooker, "Fighting Joe"; Jackson, "Stonewall" or "Old Jack"; W. F. Smith, "Baldy"; Rosecrans, "Old Rosey"; Roberts, of the British army, "Bobs."

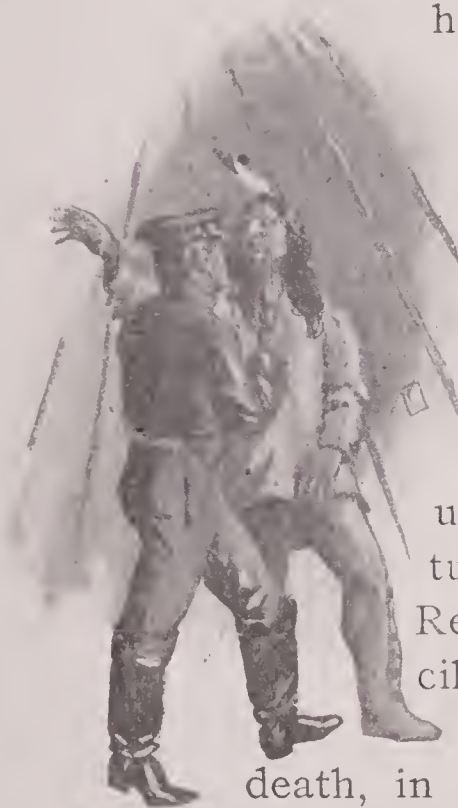
General George B. McClellan was known throughout the army, during the Civil War, as "Little Mac." He was greatly endeared to the officers and men under his command. They loved him because he cared for them and was ever mindful of their health and comfort. It is true that these are relative terms, for the privation and suffering that are inseparable from war cannot be measured by words. McClellan spared no effort to keep his army supplied with food and clothing, and was swift to condemn and punish a subordinate officer whose laxity in carrying out his orders should cause any of his soldiers to suffer need. He organized the Army of the Potomac and led it through all the campaigns of a year, save one. Fortune did not favor him in battle, and the popular clamor for a leader who could win victories demanded that he relinquish the command to another. This feeling was shared by President Lincoln, and "Little Mac" retired from the field early in the war. With victorious banners, the soldiers of that army followed other leaders, whom they learned to love and honor, but nothing ever could wholly displace in their hearts the abiding affection for their first commander.

George B. McClellan was a native of Philadelphia, born in 1826. As a boy, he was bright and studious. At sixteen, having spent two





years at the University of Pennsylvania, he entered the United States Military Academy at West Point, and graduated four years later. He stood high in his class and was commissioned a second lieutenant of engineers. He was ordered immediately to Mexico, the war with that country being then in progress. He participated in many of the principal battles, his ability, courage and faithfulness to duty winning the respect and confidence of his superiors. He was twice brevetted for "gallant and meritorious services." After the war, he was an instructor at West Point until 1851, when he took charge of the construction of Fort Delaware. Two or three years later he went, as engineer, with an expedition to explore the sources of the Red River and to survey a route for a Pacific railway. The following incident illustrates his courage and quick decision:—



With two companions and a servant, he had gone from his headquarters at Vancouver, south to the Columbia River. One evening he received word that the chief of the Columbia River tribe of Indians desired to confer with him. The messenger's manner led McClellan to suspect mischief, and, warning his companions to be ready to leave camp at a moment's notice, he mounted his horse and rode to the Indian village. About thirty men of the tribe were holding a council. McClellan was led into the circle and placed at the right hand of Saltese, the chief. Familiar with their language, he understood every word they uttered. Saltese spoke of two Indians who had been captured by a party of white pioneers and hanged for theft. Retaliation for this was their object. After a prolonged council, the sentence was passed that McClellan, though in no way responsible for the execution, should be immediately put to death, in revenge for the hanging of the two thieves. McClellan made no defense, but, flinging his arm around the neck of Saltese, he drew his revolver and held it close to the chief's temple.

"Revoke that sentence, or I shall kill you this instant!" he cried.

"I revoke it!" exclaimed Saltese, livid with fear.

"I must have your word," said McClellan, "that I can leave this council in safety."

"You have the word of Saltese," was the reply.

McClellan strode out of the tent, with his finger upon the trigger of his revolver. Not a hand was raised against him. He mounted his horse and rode to the camp, where his two followers were ready to spring into the saddle and escape from the village. His life was saved by his accurate knowledge of the Indian character and his prompt action.

During the Crimean War, a military commission was sent to observe the armies of Europe. McClellan was a member of that commission, and his report was a model of fullness, accuracy and system. This was published under the title "Armies of Europe." In 1857 McClellan resigned his commission in the army, to accept the position of chief engineer and vice-president of the Illinois Central Railroad. In 1860 he became president of the St. Louis and Cincinnati Railway. The following year, the trumpet blast called to arms; the Civil War had begun.

Governor Dennison, of Ohio, sought the services of McClellan and offered him a commission as major-general, to organize the volunteers. Scores of companies were flocking to the various places of rendezvous, eager to be equipped for war and sent to the front. McClellan accepted the position, and his singular efficiency as an organizer quickly brought order out of chaos. President Lincoln soon called McClellan to a larger field of usefulness, and appointed him a major-general in the United States army. His first field service was in western Virginia, where he conducted a series of vigorous and successful operations, as the result of which that section was entirely cleared of the hostile bodies which had been causing much annoyance along the border. So brilliant was his campaign—short, sharp and decisive—that Congress bestowed upon him the high compliment of a vote of thanks.


Meanwhile had been fought the battle of Bull Run. The shattered battalions of the routed Union army were hovering about the defenses of Washington. The shadow of defeat and humiliation rested upon the North. There was a trumpet call for a leader, and friends of the government everywhere looked to McClellan. The President called him to Washington, and at once assigned him to the command of the Army of the Potomac. For several months his work was that of organizing the regiments that were daily arriving, into brigades, divisions and corps, schooling the raw soldiers in drill and discipline, and equipping them for the field. All this he did with the directing hand of a master. The martial spirit, the courage, the devotion, the patient endurance of that compact and perfectly appointed army, which carried "Old Glory" to final victory at Appomattox, will forever stand in history a monument to the military genius of George B. McClellan.

Throughout the North, the press and populace took up the cry "On to Richmond," the capital city of Virginia, which had become also the capital of the Southern Confederacy. It was but a few miles from Washington, and the excited but unreasoning people said it must be taken, and taken at once; they would no longer brook delay.



The President and Congress, too, urged a forward movement, but McClellan steadfastly refused to yield his opinion, that the army should not again advance until it had been raised to a point of strength, equipment and efficiency that would give the largest assurance of success. So, through all the weeks of the autumn, the work of organization went on, while louder and higher rose the clamor of the impatient people. They said McClellan was too slow, and many who before had been excessive in words of praise for the "Young Napoleon," now began to call for his removal.

The winter months were passing and "All quiet on the Potomac" was the burden of the daily dispatches published in the newspapers. The army lay inactive along the banks of that historic stream, and the people of the North chafed more and more. President Lincoln, by virtue of his authority as commander-in-chief, issued an order directing that the armies of the United States, all along the line, should move upon the enemy on February 22, the anniversary of the birth of George Washington. McClellan regarded this as more sentimental than practical, and resisted it almost to the degree of insubordination. But he carried his point, and the Army of the Potomac did not advance until the warm spring sun had made the ground passable for wagons and artillery.



Between the President and General McClellan, there was a long and heated contention respecting the plan of the campaign against Richmond. The President desired a direct movement from Washington, so that the latter might not be uncovered and its safety imperiled. McClellan insisted upon transferring his army to the lower Potomac and advancing upon Richmond by the Peninsula, along the lines of the James and other rivers. Again the President yielded, and during April, May and June, 1862, McClellan conducted his great campaign according to his own plan. He could only keep peace with Mr. Lincoln, however, by detaching from his army forty thousand men, under General McDowell, for the protection of the national capital. McClellan had objected most vigorously, declaring that to so weaken his army would seriously cripple him and greatly impair his chance of success. But the President was firm, and McClellan embarked upon his great enterprise with but two-thirds of the strength, in men and guns, that he had expected.

By July 1, the campaign had ended in utter failure. McClellan slowly fought his way to within striking distance of Richmond, when the Confederate army, reinforced to the utmost, under "Joe" Johnston,

and Lee and "Stonewall" Jackson, fell upon him and drove him back to Harrison's Landing, on the James River. There was a week of furious and bloody fighting, but in no one of the "Seven Days' Battles" was either army engaged as a whole. Through the swamps and thickets the armies groped their way, and the combats were fierce grapples between such parts as came in collision, sometimes by mere chance. But, day and night, the Union army was constantly pushed backward. The last battle of the series, Malvern Hill, was a distinct victory for McClellan. In a position strong by nature and made doubly so by hastily-built fortifications, he was assailed by a large part of the Confederate army, now commanded by General Lee, General Johnston having been disabled by a wound. Repeated assaults were made, with desperate valor, but the charging columns were beaten back and forced to abandon the field. Both armies suffered very heavy losses during the campaign. McClellan attributed his failure, first, to the weakening of his army by the detachment of McDowell's corps, and, second, to the denial of reinforcements and general lack of support by the authorities at Washington. It must be admitted, however, that the superiority of generalship was on the side of the Confederates.

Another army was now formed at Washington, composed of McDowell's corps, augmented by many thousands of troops gathered from all available sources. For the time this was designated the "Army of Virginia." Its commander, during the few weeks of its separate existence, was General John Pope. In August he advanced toward Richmond by the direct overland route. General Lee hastily withdrew the Confederate forces from the Peninsula and about Richmond, and hastened to meet this new move on the chessboard of war. McClellan's divisions and corps, one after another, were hurried up the Potomac on a fleet of steamboats and pushed out with all speed to reinforce Pope. August 29 and 30, occurred the second battle of Manassas. Pope was defeated and driven back to Washington, his army in a condition bordering on panic. Again there was fear and consternation at Washington and throughout the North, and again all eyes turned to McClellan, to whom this humiliating defeat was in no degree chargeable. By the President's order, McClellan leaped into the saddle and once more appeared at the head of the army. He was greeted by the soldiers with tempestuous demonstrations of joy; his very presence was an inspiration.

The need for prompt and vigorous action was most urgent, for an emergency, critical in the extreme, had come. Lee's battle-flags, fresh from the victorious fields of the Peninsula and Manassas, were being borne northward by the swift-footed Confederates. Passing to the westward of Washington, Lee's column crossed the Potomac and



entered Maryland. The people of that and adjacent states were thrown into a condition of wildest alarm and apprehension. Whatever could be done to stay the course of the invader must be done quickly. McClellan showed great energy and activity in his hasty preparations. Getting his army well in hand, he moved rapidly, with a purpose to bring Lee to battle. "Stonewall" Jackson captured Harper's Ferry, with eleven thousand prisoners, and then hastened to rejoin his chief.

The great battle of Antietam followed. It was a mighty struggle. The September sun looked down upon the corpses of more than four thousand slain, and the wounded numbered above fifteen thousand. The losses were about equally shared between the two armies, and the battle was a drawn one. Lee quietly recrossed the Potomac and marched back to his old ground in Virginia. McClellan did nothing of consequence to impede the Confederate retreat, and his inactivity at this juncture was severely condemned. It was believed at Washington that it had been easily possible for him to strike the retreating army a hard blow, if not to destroy it entirely before it could pass the river into Virginia.

On the seventh of November, an order of the President relieved McClellan of his command and designated General Ambrose E. Burnside as his successor. McClellan had no further part in the war. He went to his home in New Jersey "to await orders," but the orders never came. In the summer of 1864, he was chosen as the candidate of the Democratic party for President. He received 1,800,000 votes against 2,200,000 for Lincoln, but the latter received the electoral votes of all the states except Kentucky, New Jersey, and Delaware, the seceded states, of course, not voting. On the day of the election, McClellan resigned his commission in the army. He spent three years in Europe, after which he was engaged in various important engineering enterprises. His death occurred October 29, 1885.

McCLERNAND, JOHN ALEXANDER.—Born in Kentucky, 1812; died in Illinois, 1900. Before the Civil War he was a lawyer and politician of note. In May, 1861, he entered the volunteer service as a brigadier-general, and a year later was made a major-general. He served under Grant at Fort Donelson, Shiloh, and Vicksburg. He commanded the expedition which captured Arkansas Post, with 5,000 prisoners, Jan. 10, 1863. He resigned from the army in 1864.

McCook, ALEXANDER McDOWELL.—Born in Ohio, 1831. An officer of the U. S. army. A graduate from West Point, he was made colonel of the 1st Ohio volunteers, at the outbreak of the Civil War, and commanded at the battle of Bull Run, July 21, 1861. He was promoted to brigadier-general soon afterward, and to major-general in 1862. He commanded a division under Buell at Shiloh and later commanded a corps, with which he fought the battle of Perryville, Ky., Oct. 8, 1862. He commanded the right wing of Rosecrans's army at Stone River, and the 20th corps at Chickamauga. After the war he became colonel of the 6th U. S. Infantry, and a brigadier-general in 1890.

McCook, DANIEL.—A distinguished member of the "Fighting McCook Family." He entered the U. S. service, in the Civil War, as colonel of the 52d Ohio volunteers. He commanded a brigade during the Atlantic campaign, and was mortally wounded in the charge at Kennesaw Mountain, June 27, 1864. He died twenty days later. The day before his death he received his commission as a brigadier-general.

McCook, EDWARD M.—A U. S. Volunteer officer of cavalry during the Civil War. He was colonel of the 2d Ind. cavalry, from which he was promoted to brigadier-general. He served through the war and was a participant in many dashing exploits.

McCook, ROBERT L.—A U. S. Volunteer officer in the Civil War. He entered the service as colonel of the 9th Ohio volunteers, but was soon afterward promoted to the rank of brigadier-general. While ill, riding in an ambulance, near Decherd, Tenn., Aug. 6, 1862, he was shot and killed by guerrillas.

McCulloch, BEN.—(1811-1862.) An American soldier. He assisted the Texans in their war of independence and was a representative to the Texan Congress (1839); member of the first legislature (1845), and major-general of the militia of the state. He raised a company of Texas rangers in the Mexican War. He was appointed United States marshal (1852); and a commissioner to settle Mormon difficulties in Utah (1857). In 1861 he was made a brigadier-general



of the Confederate army and showed conspicuous bravery and marked ability. He was killed by a sharp-shooter's bullet.

MCDOWELL, IRVIN.—Born at Columbus, O., 1818; died at San Francisco, Cal., 1885. A U. S. soldier. He was a graduate from West Point; served in the Mexican War and was brevetted for gallantry at Buena Vista. He was commissioned a brigadier-general at the beginning of the Civil War and soon afterward became major-general. He commanded the army at Bull Run, July 21, 1861, where he was defeated. Later he commanded a corps in the Army of the Potomac under Gen. McClellan. In 1872 he reached the rank of major-general in the regular army.

McLAWS, LAFAYETTE.—Born in Augusta, Ga., 1821; died at Savannah, Ga., 1897. He was a noted soldier in the Confederate army during the Civil War. He was a major-general and commanded a division under Gen. Robert E. Lee, participating with conspicuous zeal and capacity in all the campaigns of that army.

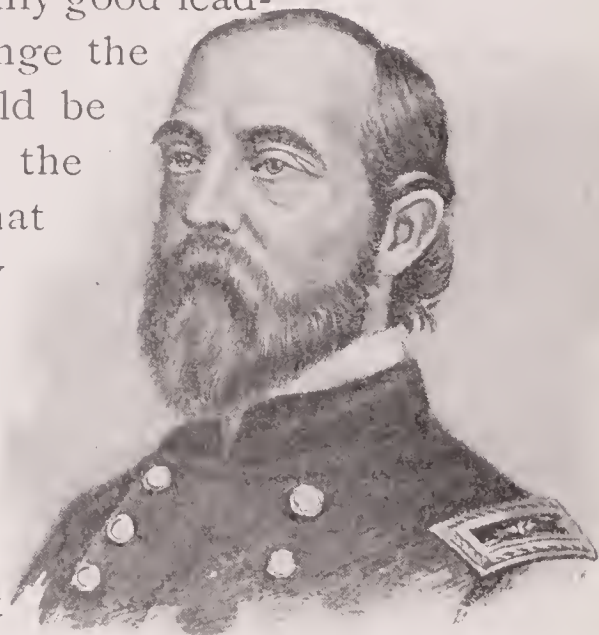
McPHERSON, JAMES BIRDSEYE.—Born at Clyde, O., 1828; killed in battle of Atlanta, Ga., July 22, 1864. He was a graduate of West Point, where he ranked high in scholarship, and entered the corps of engineers. Early in the Civil War he was made a brigadier-general, and in 1862 was chief-engineer of the army of Gen. Grant. He showed such capacity that he was soon promoted to major-general and assigned to the command of a corps. He was conspicuous in the operations around Vicksburg and elsewhere. In 1864 he succeeded to the command of the Army of the Tennessee, which formed a part of the great army organized by Gen. Sherman for the Atlanta campaign. In May, McPherson was sent to flank the Confederate army's position at Dalton, Ga., by passing through Snake Creek Gap and striking the railroad at Resaca. He accomplished this, and thus forced the retreat of Johnston to that place. On the 22d of July the Army of the Tennessee, which occupied the left of Sherman's line at Atlanta, was furiously assailed by half of Hood's army, under Gen. Hardee. Early in the action McPherson, while rapidly passing through a copse, encountered the enemy. He was shot from his horse and died almost immediately. He was a most able and distinguished officer, and Gen. Sherman was overcome with emotion when he learned of his death. Gen. McPherson was soon to have been married. His body was buried at the home of his mother in Clyde, where a beautiful monument marks his resting place.

## GEORGE GORDON MEADE

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*Who won the great victory at Gettysburg.*

THE first two years of the Civil War were, on both sides, the period of organization and experiment. They were productive of little in the way of tangible results, except the formation of armies, composed of men inured to hardship, tempered in the fire of battle, and blended into compact bodies which needed only good leadership to accomplish feats of arms that would challenge the world. It was evident from the first that there would be no lack of soldierly qualities in the men composing the "rank and file"; it was the question of commanders that gave to the directing authorities the greatest anxiety and perplexity. Up to the middle of the year 1863, neither side had gained any advantage in the East. There had been much desperate fighting, and a prodigious number of men had suffered death or mutilation, but the hostile armies occupied practically the same relative positions that they did at the outbreak of the war in 1861; the camps of the Union army still fringed the banks of the Potomac.



Goaded by the constant cry "On to Richmond!" from the impatient people of the North, the army again and again had marched against the enemy, under McClellan, and Pope, and Burnside, and Hooker, successively. Great battles had been fought, but each had only added to the long, mournful record of defeat and disaster. We should, perhaps, except Antietam, in September, 1862, when McClellan beat back the tide of Confederate invasion; but the losses were about equal, the result was wholly inconclusive, and Lee marched back without hindrance to his old position in Virginia. But Lee had on the credit side of his ledger, in the account with his Maryland campaign, eleven thousand Union prisoners and a vast quantity of cannon and other spoil taken at Harper's Ferry. Bull Run, Ball's Bluff, the Seven Days' Battles on the Peninsula, Manassas, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville—all had resulted in undeniable Confederate victories. Generally speaking, in these fierce conflicts the Union army largely outnumbered its adversary, and this fact added to the constantly increasing bitterness of defeat. It is true that the Confederates usually



fought on the defensive, which fact partially compensated for minority of numbers, but the conclusion is irresistible, as well as logical, that the painful lack of success on the Union side was due to inefficient leadership. The authorities at Richmond were fortunate in finding, a year earlier than did those at Washington, a commander who could command. The quest was long for a leader who could cope successfully with Robert E. Lee. That great soldier found his match at Gettysburg—"the high-water mark of the rebellion"—and with that battle will ever be inseparably connected the name of the Union commander, General George Gordon Meade.

Probably few persons know that Meade was born in Spain, though he was not a Spaniard. His father, a Pennsylvanian, was at that time, 1815, naval agent of the United States at Cadiz, to which post he had been appointed by President Madison. After he had received a good education, young Meade entered the Military Academy at West Point, from which he was graduated in 1835. He was commissioned a second lieutenant of artillery and at once went into active service in the Seminole War, in Florida. At the end of the year, he resigned and entered the profession of civil engineering. In this he showed remarkable skill and efficiency. For six years he was employed by the United States Government. He made an elaborate survey of the mouths of the Mississippi, which led to great and important improvements. He also surveyed the northern boundary line of Texas and the northeastern line between the United States and Canada. In 1842 he was reappointed to the army, as a lieutenant of topographical engineers. During the Mexican War, he distinguished himself while serving on staff duty with General Taylor, and afterward with General Scott, at Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma and Monterey. In 1856 he reached the rank of captain. The four years preceding the Civil War he spent in a geodetic survey of the Great Lakes. This duty was performed with such thoroughness and skill that it added largely to his reputation as a scientific engineer. Then the tocsin of war sounded, and the largest field of military activity and usefulness was opened to Meade. The man was then but a captain, who, two years later, was to win undying renown amid the thunders of Gettysburg.

During the first four months of the war, the services of Meade were in minor positions and of small moment. But his capacity was recognized and in August, 1861, he was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers. He was assigned to the command of a brigade in that splendid body of troops known as the Pennsylvania Reserves, which formed part of the Army of the Potomac. His coolness and gallantry were conspicuous in the battles of the Peninsular campaign, in 1862. At Glendale he received a severe wound, which disabled

him for several weeks. But before it had entirely healed, he was again in the saddle, now riding at the head of a division. He participated in the campaign against Lee in Maryland and won fresh laurels by his excellent conduct at South Mountain and Antietam. At the last-named battle he succeeded to the command of the First corps, when General Hooker was wounded, and gave abundant proof of his ability to command a large body of men. In recognition of his faithful and efficient service, he was promoted to the rank of major-general in November, 1862. When Hooker resumed the command of the First corps, Meade returned to his division, which he led with great gallantry in the desperate assaults at Fredericksburg. He was then permanently assigned to the command of the Fifth corps, and in this capacity took part in the battle of Chancellorsville. General Hooker, who at this time commanded the Army of the Potomac, was greatly impressed with the sagacity and technical skill shown by General Meade, in suggestions which he made when his chief called him in consultation. Hooker failed to win the battle, although he had nearly twice as many men as Lee, and his defeated army was driven back to the line of the Potomac.

Then followed one of the most momentous campaigns of the war, which culminated in the mighty conflict at Gettysburg. Undaunted by the failure of his advance into Maryland, ten months before, General Lee was strongly inclined to try once more the experiment of carrying the war into the enemy's country. The authorities at Richmond were no less eager than Lee for a chance to strike the enemy, but were timorous and apprehensive of the result. They finally yielded to the judgment of Lee, and in June the army was put in motion toward the Potomac. Lee made a wide detour to the westward, behind the curtain of his cavalry, around the right flank of the Union army. It was of the highest importance that he should make the utmost possible progress upon his bold adventure before his plan should be disclosed to the Union commander. So adroitly did he conduct his movements, that not until he was crossing the Potomac, far to the northwestward of Washington, did Hooker even know that his adversary had left his Virginia camps. A small but noisy picket line, which remained till the last moment, had, by its activity, completely deceived the Union army and kept it in ignorance of the impending irruption.

It was near the end of June, 1863, when the quick march of the Confederate columns into Pennsylvania created an excessive panic at Washington and throughout the North. The situation was one to justify the gravest alarm, for at the moment there was nothing to prevent Lee from moving directly upon Harrisburg, or any other point toward which he might direct his army. Under orders from the War



Office at Washington, General Hooker instantly broke camp and started the seven corps of his army. They moved rapidly, by widely separated routes, with orders to draw together at a designated point in Pennsylvania. -It so happened that it now became General Lee's turn to be ignorant of what his antagonist was doing. He had directed General Stuart, who commanded his cavalry, to cover the Confederate right flank after the passage of the Potomac, and by means of scouts to watch closely the movements of Hooker—for he knew that the greatest activity would follow the discovery of his advance. Stuart preferred to go upon one of his favorite "raids," and Lee, consenting to this plan, saw him no more until the last day of the battle.

During the march of the Union army to meet the invader, General Hooker antagonized the authorities at Washington. He was irritated by orders that were confusing and conflicting, and in some cases contrary to his judgment. Somewhat imperious and headstrong, he showed a disposition to have his own way. Matters came to such a pass that on June 28, at a most critical stage of the campaign, and upon the eve of battle, Hooker asked to be relieved of his command. It was a most inauspicious time to make a change of commanders, but Hooker had alienated the confidence and the friendship of many of his subordinates, and had so impaired his usefulness that it was deemed wise to grant his request. He was asked whom he could recommend as his successor, and he answered, "General Meade."

It was not without fear and trembling that the order was issued directing Meade to assume the command, for the emergency was grave and momentous. Meade's course during two years in the field had inspired the largest confidence in his ability as a subordinate, but he was wholly untried in the vastly greater and more responsible position as leader of an army of a hundred thousand men. True patriot that he was, Meade accepted the appointment, though it was much against his wish to do so. He feared his incapacity to meet the requirements of the occasion, particularly in view of the fact that he was to take the command at a moment of supreme importance, and of the greatest disadvantage to himself. He knew nothing of the details of Hooker's plan of the campaign. He did not even know where all the corps of the army then were. It was a crucial test, such as few men have been called to face, and it is to the infinite credit of Meade that he assumed the burden so cheerfully and bore it so well.

That a great battle must be fought was inevitable; where it would take place would be determined by circumstances. The place was fixed by an accidental and unforeseen collision at Gettysburg, July 1, between a body of Union cavalry, under General Buford, and a division of Confederate infantry, which was a part of the corps of

General A. P. Hill. Buford promptly engaged the enemy, meanwhile sending information to General Reynolds who, with the First Union corps, was near at hand. Reynolds marched his troops to the scene with all speed, other divisions of the Confederate army arrived, and the issue was joined. Desperate fighting began at once. Early in the action General Reynolds, a most gallant and capable officer, fell in immediate death. The Eleventh and Twelfth corps of the Union army came upon the field two or three hours later. They were roughly handled, and several brigades crumbled before the onslaughts of the enemy and fled in confusion. Above five thousand men fell into the hands of the Confederates as prisoners. Thus, in the fighting of the first day, the advantage was largely with the Confederates. About two-fifths of each army had been engaged. Neither General Meade nor General Lee had expected to fight at Gettysburg, and neither was there when the battle began. Lee arrived in the afternoon, but Meade did not reach the scene of action till past midnight. Couriers had conveyed orders to the scattered corps of both armies, and during the night all of these arrived, by the greatest exertion. The rapid, all-night march of Meade's Sixth corps was excessively arduous and exhausting.

Fighting was renewed on the following day and was of the most furious and sanguinary character. The world's wars have presented few such fierce and stubborn conflicts as that which took place for the possession of a high, rocky knoll called "Little Round Top." It was secured by the Union troops, and the position proved a most valuable one. On the scene of this desperate encounter, the dead and dying—the blue and the gray closely intermingled—almost covered the ground, and the rocks were red with the blood of the slain.

During the two days, both armies had suffered great losses, but the morning of the third day saw them still confronting each other, officers and men alike animated by a spirit of dauntless courage. The main line of the Union army was upon a stretch of high land known as Cemetery Ridge; that of the Confederates was on Seminary Ridge, nearly parallel to the first named, and something more than a mile distant.

The feature of the last day's fighting was the famous charge directly on the Union position on Cemetery Ridge, made by Pickett's division of Longstreet's corps. This division was composed wholly of Virginia troops—the very flower of the Confederate army. The charging line was formed near the foot of Seminary Ridge, and, under the constantly increasing fire from the Union artillery and musketry, dashed across the valley and up the slope that was swept by the hostile guns. No braver charge was ever made by soldiers. They reached the crest



and actually tore their way through the Union line. But after a short, sharp struggle, those who had leaped the works were overpowered, and the human wave, which had been beaten into spray, receded into the valley. Three-fourths of those who had sprung at the command, "Forward!" were dead, wounded or captive. Pickett escaped unharmed, but all of his three brigade commanders were stricken down, two of them fatally.



The charge of Pickett was Lee's forlorn hope, and with its failure, he gave up the fight. That night he began the withdrawal of his shattered battalions. He drew back to the Potomac, which he found a raging flood, in consequence of copious rains. After serious trouble, he succeeded in laying a pontoon bridge, by which his army passed safely into Virginia. It is true that the Union army was bruised and sore from buffeting the storm of battle, but it was no more so than Lee's, and it was much stronger in numbers. Military critics agree that had Meade shown more enterprise after the battle, and followed Lee to the river, he might have achieved even much greater results. But the country had been delivered from a great peril, and neither the government nor the people were disposed to be critical. It was an inexpressible relief to know that the Confederate battle-flags no longer fluttered in Pennsylvania, and General Meade was loaded with compliments, congratulations and honors. Three thousand were killed on the Union side at Gettysburg; the wounded and the prisoners carried the loss above twenty thousand. The loss of the Confederates was nearly as great.

General Meade continued to command the Army of the Potomac until its disbandment after the war. During the great campaign of 1864-65 he was subordinate to Grant, who was the field commander-in-chief, but to the last he had the entire confidence of his chief, who found him always wise in council, prompt in obedience, skillful in execution and devoted in loyalty. For his victory at Gettysburg, Meade received the thanks of Congress and was made a brigadier-general in the regular army. After the war, he was in command of the military division of the Atlantic until his death, November 6, 1872. Philadelphia erected in Fairmount Park a colossal equestrian statue to honor his memory.

MECHANICSVILLE (Va.), BATTLE OF.—One of the engagements of the Seven Days' battles near Richmond. Gen. Lee massed the Confederate troops of A. P. Hill, Longstreet, D. H. Hill, and Jackson, and at dawn of June 26, 1862, hurled them upon the Union right, held by the corps of Fitz-John Porter. After a stubborn fight, the Confederates were repulsed, though Porter subsequently retired across the Chickahominy. The Confederate loss was about 1,500; that of the Federals 650.

MEIGS, MONTGOMERY CUNNINGHAM.—Born at Augusta, Ga., 1816; died at Washington, D. C., 1892. A distinguished engineer and general of the U. S. army. Although of southern birth and family connections, he adhered to the Union in the Civil War, and in 1861 was made quartermaster-general of the army, which position he filled with marked efficiency. He was brevetted major-general in 1864. He supervised the erection of several of the government buildings in Washington. He was placed on the retired list in 1882.

MEMPHIS (Tenn.), CAPTURE OF.—The evacuation of Corinth, Miss., by the Confederates, May 31, 1862, uncovered Fort Pillow, a strong Confederate work on the Mississippi River, forty miles above Memphis, and it was abandoned to the Federals. June 6 Commodore Davis, with a Union fleet of five gunboats and two rams, appeared before Memphis. A Confederate fleet of eight vessels, under Commodore Montgomery, gave battle, but was defeated and nearly destroyed, after a sharp conflict of little more than an hour. There was no land force at Memphis sufficient for its defense and the city was immediately surrendered to the Federals. It did not again pass under the flag of the Confederacy during the war.

"MERRIMAC," THE.—A 40-gun frigate formerly of the U. S. navy, which fell into the hands of the Confederates by the evacuation of Norfolk, Va., in 1861. The Confederates placed upon the "Merrimac" a heavy iron plating and sent her to destroy the Union vessels lying in Hampton Roads. For a description of the "Merrimac" and an account of her career and of her battle with the "Monitor," the first turreted war vessel ever built, see sketch of JOHN ERICSSON, 175.

MERRYMAN CASE.—Merryman, a citizen of Maryland, was arrested in his home in 1861, by order of an officer of the U. S. army and charged with treason. He was imprisoned in Fort McHenry. Chief-justice Taney granted a writ of habeas corpus, which the officer in charge of the prisoner refused to execute on the ground that the President had suspended the operation of the habeas corpus. The case was taken before the Supreme Court of the U. S., which decided that power to suspend the writ of habeas corpus was not vested in



the President, Congress alone having such jurisdiction, and that a military officer had no right to arrest a person not subject to the rules and articles of war, except in aid of judicial authority. (See MILLIGAN CASE.)

MIDDLE CREEK (Ky.), BATTLE OF.—One of the early actions of the Civil War. At the end of 1861 Gen. Humphrey Marshall, with a Confederate force of 2,500, had taken a position in eastern Kentucky and was threatening to advance northward. Col. James A. Garfield, 42d Ohio regiment, with 1,800 men, was sent to drive Marshall from that section. After a fatiguing march, during which his troops suffered much from the inclemency of the midwinter weather, Garfield attacked Marshall, Jan. 10, 1862, at Middle Creek, near Paintsville, Johnson Co. The battle lasted all day, when Marshall abandoned the field burning his stores and equipage. The losses in killed and wounded were small.

MILLIGAN CASE.—A U. S. Supreme Court case, involving the authority of the President to suspend the rights of citizens under habeas corpus proceedings. Oct. 5, 1864, during the Civil War, Milligan, a citizen of Indiana, was arrested by order of Gen. Hovey, and on Oct. 21, was brought before a military commission convened at Indianapolis. He was tried, found guilty, and sentenced to be hanged for participation in rebellious schemes. By the habeas corpus act of Congress, in 1863, lists were to be furnished in each state, of persons suspected of disloyal acts and counsels. But any such person arrested, against whom no indictment should be found by the circuit or district court, was to be set at liberty on his petition verified by oath. Milligan was not indicted by a civil court. He objected to the authority of the military commission, and sued for a writ of habeas corpus in the circuit court. The case was decided by the Supreme Court in 1866, Justice Davis, reading the opinion that the writ should be issued and the prisoner discharged. The court held that the power of erecting military jurisdiction in a state not invaded, and not a rebellion, was not vested in Congress, and that it could not be exercised in this particular case; that the prisoner, a civilian, was exempt from the laws of war and could only be tried by a jury; that the writ of habeas corpus could not be constitutionally suspended, though the privilege of that writ might be. The chief-justice and Justices Wayne, Swayne, and Miller, while concurring in the judgment of the court, made a separate statement of reasons. The decision expressly stated that conspiracies to aid rebellion were enormous crimes, and that Congress was obliged to enact severe laws to meet such a crisis.

MILLIKEN'S BEND (La.), BATTLE OF.—General Grant, during his operations against Vicksburg (May–June, 1863), drew from the various posts in that department all the troops that could be spared to strengthen his army in the field. A strong fort at Milliken's Bend, on the Mississippi River, was manned by a small garrison, mostly negroes. June 6, Gen. McCulloch, with a force of Confederates, attempted its capture. The fort was well defended, but McCulloch might have overpowered the garrison had it not been for the timely arrival of two Union gunboats, which turned the tide of battle and the assailants were repulsed. The Federal loss was 490 and that of the Confederates about 725.

MILLS, ROGER QUARLES.—Born in Todd Co., Ky., 1832. A Democratic politician. He settled in Texas in 1849, served as a Confederate officer in the Civil War, was a member of Congress from Texas (1873–92), chairman of the Ways and Means Committee (1887–89), and as such introduced the Mills Bill in 1888. He represented Texas in the U. S. Senate (1892–98).

MILL SPRINGS (Ky.), BATTLE OF.—Near the end of 1861, the first year of the Civil War, Gen. Felix K. Zollicoffer, with a Confederate force of 5,000 men, took up a strongly intrenched position at Mill Springs, on the Cumberland River, in southeastern Kentucky. In January, 1862, Gen. George H. Thomas, with a Federal force numbering 7,000 marched to dislodge him. The Confederates advanced to meet him, and Jan. 19, an engagement took place. Thomas won a complete victory, capturing 12 cannon, 150 wagons, and 1,000 horses. The Confederates fled across the river and burned the boats to cut off pursuit. In the action the Confederates lost 350, their commander, Gen. Zollicoffer, being among the slain. The Union loss was 250.

MOBILE BAY (Ala.), BATTLE OF.—The port of Mobile was an important one to the Confederates during the Civil War, because of the facilities it afforded for the ingress and egress of blockade runners. At no time was the blockade wholly effective, and the Confederates did more business with the outside world here than at any other port except Wilmington, N. C. The Federal government at various times considered plans for the capture of Mobile, by the reduction of its very strong defenses. These consisted of forts at several points, mounting the heaviest guns, and, in 1864, a formidable fleet of gunboats, and the powerful ironclad ram "Tennessee." The Union flag did not float over the city until at the end of the war, at the same time that Lee surrendered at Appomattox. In the summer of 1864 operations against Mobile were planned on a large scale, embracing both land and naval forces. The entrance to the bay was defended



by strong forts, but it was considered feasible for ironclad vessels to "run" these batteries, as had already been done below New Orleans, at Port Hudson and at Vicksburg. Rear-admiral Farragut did this, Aug. 5, with 18 vessels, including four monitors (see FARRAGUT, DAVID GLASGOW, 183). The bay was well planted with torpedoes, and one of these sank the monitor "Tecumseh," with nearly all on board. Her commander, Capt. Craven, and 113 of the crew were drowned. The loss of life on the other vessels of Farragut's fleet during the battle with the Confederate vessels in the bay was 52, with 170 wounded. All of the Confederate vessels were destroyed or captured save one, which escaped up the bay. The night after the battle Fort Powell was abandoned and blown up. Fort Gaines was surrendered the next day, and Fort Morgan was reduced a few days later. In these forts were taken 104 cannon and nearly 1,500 prisoners. The Federals now had control of Mobile Bay, but the city was still protected by strong works. It was not till April, 1865, that these were taken, by a coöperation of land and naval forces, and the city fell, after its long and stubborn resistance. In the final action the Federals lost 700 killed and wounded, and the Confederates 2,900, most of whom were prisoners. The principal defense of the city was known as Fort Blakely.

"MONITOR," THE.—The first war vessel, the armament of which was operated with a revolving iron turret. Its name was given to this class of vessels, of which many were added to the U. S. navy after the first had achieved its success. For a description of the original "Monitor," and an account of her battle with the Confederate steamer "Merrimac," the first iron-plated war vessel, in Hampton Roads, early in 1862, see sketch of her inventor and builder, JOHN ERICSSON, 175.

MONOCACY (Md.), BATTLE OF.—When Gen. Early with 20,000 Confederates, emerged from the Shenandoah Valley, in the summer of 1864, and advanced toward Washington, a Federal force 7,000 strong was hastily collected and sent westward, under Gen. Lew Wallace, to impede his progress. Early was encountered at Monocacy and a sharp engagement took place, lasting eight hours. Wallace was at length over-powered by largely superior numbers, but his command rendered a valuable service in delaying the advance of Early, when every hour was precious to summon troops for the defense of Washington. The Federal loss was nearly 2,000, of whom 1,200 were captured; that of the Confederates was 700.

MORGAN, JOHN HUNT.—Born at Huntsville, Ala., 1826; killed at Greenville, east Tennessee, Sept. 4, 1864. He was a dashing partisan

cavalry commander, on the Confederate side, during the Civil War. He was a terror to the Union soldiers in Kentucky and Tennessee by reason of his frequent "raids" upon their communications and depots of supply. His soldiers had the spirit of their leader, and they were always ready to fight or ride. Morgan's men made frequent captures of prisoners, pouncing upon isolated bodies with irresistible fury. It has been stated, and is probably true, that during two years Morgan's men took prisoners to the number of three times their own strength. Morgan's raid through southern Indiana and Ohio, in 1863, proved fatal, resulting in the almost total destruction of his command. Morgan, with what remained of his force, was captured, and he and a large number of his officers were confined in the Ohio penitentiary at Columbus. By means of a tunnel under the wall, Morgan escaped and made his way into Kentucky. He assembled another force and resumed operations, but on the night of Sept. 4, 1864, was surrounded in a house at Greenville, by a force of U. S. Cavalry under Gen. Gillem. Morgan attempted to escape by flight, but was shot in the garden. (See MORGAN'S RAID.)

MORGAN'S RAID.—One of the exciting episodes of the Civil War. John H. Morgan, of Kentucky, was a very enterprising leader of Confederate cavalry, whose courage, daring, and ceaseless activity made his name a terror to Union soldiers in Kentucky and Tennessee. His frequent and usually successful raids, by which supplies were destroyed and communications broken, caused great annoyance to the Federal army in that department. Coincident with the advance of Lee's army into Pennsylvania, in the latter part of June, 1863, Morgan planned an expedition north of the Ohio River from Kentucky. He was directed to coöperate with Gen. Buckner, who commanded a Confederate force in eastern Tennessee and was preparing for a campaign in Kentucky, with Louisville as his objective point. Buckner's contemplated movement was abandoned, by reason of the advance of Rosecrans from Murfreesboro, but Morgan determined to make his projected "raid." With about 3,000 cavalry he crossed the Ohio River into Indiana, above Louisville, and turned eastward. He rode through southern Indiana and Ohio, burning bridges, cutting railroads, taking horses and such supplies as his men needed. The people of that region were thrown into a panic. Bodies of "home guards" endeavored to stay Morgan's progress but they were quickly brushed away and the daring troopers swept on their course. What Morgan's specific object was is not clear; if he had one it was defeated. He passed through the outskirts of Cincinnati, looting stores and creating among the people the wildest consternation. Without attempting to



capture the city he continued his eastward course. Bodies of Federal cavalry were hurried to the scene and Morgan found himself harassed in front, flank, and rear by soldiers who knew how to fight. Soon after passing Cincinnati, Morgan determined, if possible, to save his command by recrossing the Ohio River into Kentucky. He reached the river at Buffington Ford, July 19, but the Federal forces compelled him to give battle. The action was disastrous to Morgan, who lost nearly 1,000 men, of whom 800 were captured. Some 400 succeeded in crossing the river, and with the remnant of his command, hourly growing less by capture, Morgan endeavored to escape to the northeastward. In Columbiana County, Ohio, he found himself surrounded by Federal cavalry and surrendered. During his movement through Indiana and Ohio, more than 2,200 of his men were killed or captured. Morgan and his officers were confined in the Ohio penitentiary.

MUNFORDVILLE (Ky.), BATTLE OF.—Sept. 17, 1862, during his campaign in Kentucky, Gen. Bragg, the Confederate commander, attacked a Federal force of 4,000 under Gen. J. T. Wilder, at Munfordville. The Federals were outnumbered five to one, and the entire force surrendered. It was composed of raw troops mostly from Indiana. The prisoners were paroled.

MURFREESBORO (Tenn.), BATTLE OF.—See STONE RIVER, BATTLE OF.

NASHVILLE (Tenn.), BATTLE OF.—After Gen. Hood had lost Atlanta he marched his Confederate army to the northwestward, crossed the Tennessee River at Florence, and entered Tennessee. His progress was closely watched by Gen. Schofield who had with him the 4th and 23d corps, about 20,000 men, which had been detached from the army of Sherman. The latter was preparing for his march to the sea. Gen. Thomas, whom Sherman had left in command, was at Nashville, assembling troops from every available source. Hood had about 37,000 men. Thomas directed Schofield to delay Hood's progress as much as possible but to avoid a general engagement. Hood forced him to fight at Franklin but was defeated with great loss. (See FRANKLIN, BATTLE OF.) Schofield fell back to Nashville to join Thomas, and was closely followed by Hood, who invested the city on the south, his flanks resting on the Cumberland River, above and below the city. Two weeks later (Dec. 15-16) Thomas hurled his army upon Hood with irresistible force. On the second day the Federal line swept like a tornado over the entire Confederate line of intrenchments, capturing nearly 5,000 prisoners and above fifty pieces of artillery. Thomas pursued the fleeing and defeated army, but the roads were well-nigh impassable and for days the men and horses of both

armies floundered in mud and were deluged with rain. With about 17,000 men—all that remained of the 37,000 with which he had entered Tennessee a few weeks before—Hood succeeded in crossing the river. He marched the remnant of his army to Tupelo, Miss., where he resigned the command. (See HOOD, JOHN B. 223; THOMAS, GEORGE HENRY, 349.)

NELSON, WILLIAM.—(1825–1862.) He entered the navy in 1840, serving therein until the Civil War. He preferred land service and was transferred to the army. In 1861 he superintended the organization and equipment of troops in Kentucky. He was promoted to major-general and placed in command of a division in what was then the Army of the Ohio, under Gen. Buell. Nelson was a lion in battle and distinguished himself on the second day at Shiloh. His personal manner was such as to alienate the friendship of other officers, and it was this that led to his tragic death. In the fall of 1862 he was in command at Louisville, Sept. 29, at the Galt House, and in an altercation growing out of their official relations, he was shot and killed by Gen. Jefferson C. Davis. The latter was tried by court-martial but was exonerated and restored to duty. It was considered by the court that the provocation given by the words and manner of Nelson had justified Gen. Davis in taking his life.

NEWBERN, or NEW BERNE (N. C.), CAPTURE OF.—After obtaining possession of Roanoke Island (which see), in February, 1862, Gen. Burnside proceeded against Newbern, an important strategic point on the Neuse River, which had been strongly fortified by the Confederates. March 14, Burnside landed a heavy force below the city, advanced and carried the works by assault, capturing forty-six heavy guns, three field batteries, a large quantity of stores, and 2,500 prisoners. The Federal loss in killed and wounded was 550; that of the Confederates, who fought behind intrenchments, was less than one hundred.

NEW HOPE CHURCH (Ga.), BATTLE OF.—Also called Pumpkin Vine Creek. A series of skirmishes or battles, one of which was severe, between Generals Sherman and Johnston, May 25–28, 1864. The loss on each side was about 2,500 men. Neither party secured important advantage.

NEW MADRID (Mo.), BATTLE OF.—New Madrid, on the Mississippi River nearly fifty miles below Cairo, and opposite Island No. 10, was a Confederate stronghold. It was captured by General Pope, March 14, 1862, the garrison having withdrawn to Island No. 10 the preceding night, which was dark and stormy.



NEW ORLEANS (La.), CAPTURE OF.—The city of New Orleans, lying on the east bank of the Mississippi River, ninety miles from its mouth, controls all the foreign, and much of the domestic, commerce of the vast region of the Mississippi Valley. The importance of the city to the Confederates, and the desirability of its capture by the U. S. forces were apparent. Its real defenses were Forts Jackson and St. Philip, sixty miles below the city and advantageously located on either bank of the river near the great bend where the stream is narrow and the current swift. The forts were reinforced by a strong fleet of gunboats and the river below was obstructed by a heavy chain, or boom, stretched from bank to bank. At the suggestion of Commodore Porter, General Butler with a force of 15,000 men was sent in the spring of 1862, to coöperate with Commodore Farragut in an attempt to capture New Orleans. With a strong fleet Farragut sailed up the river as far as the obstructions, and for six days shelled the forts without material success. He then decided to run by the forts. The fleet was separated into three divisions, of which Farragut led the second. Amid a storm of shot, close to the mouths of the guns, for the river was narrow at that place, against a swift current, avoiding blazing rafts that had been turned adrift from above, the fleet destroyed the obstructions, ran by the forts, then fiercely attacked the formidable fleet of Confederate gunboats that was awaiting the onset, and quickly destroyed it. The victory was complete, and on May 1, 1862, New Orleans was occupied by the Federal troops and was held to the close of the war. The total Federal loss, in killed and wounded, was one hundred and eighty-four; the Confederate loss was given at forty.

NEWTON, JOHN.—(1823–1895.) A soldier and engineer of note. He was educated at West Point and entered the U. S. army in 1842. Early in the Civil War he was made a brigadier-general and in 1863 a major-general.

NORFOLK (Va.), EVACUATION AND RECAPTURE OF.—At the beginning of the Civil War, Norfolk was important by reason of its large navy yard and depot of naval supplies that belonged to the U. S. In order to prevent these from falling into the hands of the Confederates, the commandant burned all the government buildings and stores, and burned or sunk all the vessels. He then evacuated and the Confederates occupied the place. Among the vessels sunk was the iron-clad "Merrimac," afterward famous for the battle with the "Monitor." (See "MERRIMAC," THE.) At the approach of McClellan's army the Confederates, in May, 1862, abandoned Norfolk, which from that time on remained in the possession of the U. S.

NORTHERN VIRGINIA, ARMY OF.—A division of the Confederate army during the Civil War occupying for the most part the space between Richmond and Washington, and charged with the specific duty of defending Richmond. For a short time it was commanded by Gen. Joseph E. Johnston and afterward by Gen. Robert E. Lee, with whose name the army is historically identified. The fighting strength, varying from 50,000 to 90,000 men, was tested on many a bloody field, including Bull Run (two battles), Antietam, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, Wilderness, Spottsylvania, Cold Harbor, Petersburg, Five Forks, and Sailor's Creek. Gen. Lee surrendered what was left of his army to Gen. Grant at Appomattox, April 9, 1865.

OHIO, ARMY OF THE.—Successively two grand divisions of the U. S. army during the Civil War were known by this name. The first was organized in 1861 and was commanded by Gen. Buell; in 1862 it was called the Army of the Cumberland. The second was organized in 1863 to operate against Knoxville. It served in the Atlanta campaign and continued in operation to the close of the war.

OHIO, ARMY OF THE.—See BUELL, DON CARLOS, 135.

"OLD PAP."—A name affectionately given to Gen. George H. Thomas by his soldiers.

"OLD PUT."—A nickname of Gen. Israel Putnam.

"OLD ROSEY."—Gen. William S. Rosecrans was so called in the army during the Civil War.

"OLD ROUGH AND READY."—A sobriquet applied to Gen. Zachary Taylor by his soldiers during the Mexican War, and during the political campaign of 1848.

"OLD SLOW-TROT."—A sobriquet bestowed upon Gen. George H. Thomas, because of a characteristic manner of riding.

"OLD TECUMP."—A sobriquet by which Gen. William Tecumseh Sherman was familiarly known to his soldiers.

OLUSTEE (Fla.), BATTLE OF.—A Federal force of about 5,000 under Gen. Seymour was surprised by the Confederates, Feb. 20, 1864, and routed, with a loss of nearly 2,000. The remaining troops returned to Port Royal, S. C., from whence the expedition had started.

"ON TO RICHMOND."—A phrase which will always be remembered in connection with the Civil War. It was an expression of the popular impatience at the North for the army grouped about Washington to advance on the Confederate capital. (See GEORGE G. MEADE.)



ORD, EDWARD OTHO CRESAP.—(1818–1883.) An American soldier; appointed major-general of volunteers in 1862, and succeeded Gen. Butler in the command of the Army of the James, 1864.

OTIS, ELWELL STEPHEN.—Born 1838. An American general active in the Civil War, and the frontier Indian wars; appointed military governor of the Philippines, 1898.

PALMER, JAMES SHEDDEN.—(1810–1867.) An American admiral, prominent during the Civil War.

PARKE, JOHN G.—An American soldier, born in Pennsylvania in 1827. He graduated from West Point in 1840, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers in 1861. He was in command at the capture of Fort Macon; and after his appointment as major-general in 1862, he was chief-of-staff for General Burnside, and later, commanded the Ninth corps. In 1887 he was appointed superintendent of the United States Military Academy.

PARKER, FOXHALL A.—(1821–1879.) An American naval officer, born in New York City. He served in the Florida War and in the Mediterranean. In 1861 he was appointed executive officer of the navy yard at Washington, D. C. He was made commander (1862); captain (1866), and superintendent of the United States Naval Academy (1878).

PATRICK, MARSENA.—(1811–1888.) An American soldier born in Houndsfield, N. Y. He was a graduate of West Point and served in the Florida and Mexican wars. In the Civil War he was provost-marshal-general of the army of the Potomac and later, of the armies before Richmond. He was for years the President of the New York State Agricultural College and superintendent of the Agricultural Society.

PATTERSON, ROBERT.—(1792–1881.) A general in the Civil War. He was born in Ireland. He engaged in manufacturing in Philadelphia, and later, entered the army for service in the Mexican and Civil Wars, when he rose to the rank of major-general of volunteers.

PEACE CONFERENCES.—(1) The first of these met at Washington, Feb. 4, 1861, for the purpose of averting civil war, and represented twenty-one states and territories. Various amendments to the Constitution were proposed relating to the question of slavery, but no action was taken by Congress. (2) In July, 1864, President Lincoln authorized Horace Greeley to confer with representatives of the Confederacy at Niagara Falls with a view to ending the war. (3) Col. Jacques and J. R. Gillmore about the same time held an unsuccessful conference with Jefferson Davis at Richmond. (4) The last conference was

arranged by Francis P. Blair, Sr. This was held at Hampton Roads, Feb. 3, 1865, between certain Confederate officials and Secretary Seward, President Lincoln also being within reach.

All these conferences came to nothing, as neither party would concede the main point at issue.

PEACH ORCHARD.—The scene of fierce fighting on the second day of the battle of Gettysburg, July 2, 1863.

PEACH-TREE CREEK, BATTLE OF.—July 20, 1864; one of the hard-fought battles of the Atlanta campaign between Gen. Hood, who led the Confederates, and Gen. Sherman. After several hours' hard fighting the Confederates withdrew. The Federal loss was 1,700, while that of the Confederates was about 3,000.

PEA RIDGE (Ark.), BATTLE OF.—Fought March 7-8, 1862. The Confederates, under Gen. Van Dorn, were defeated by the Federals, under Gen. Custer. The loss was about 1,300 on each side.

PECK, JOHN JAMES.—(1821-1878.) A general in the Mexican War, and in the Civil War.

PEGRAM, JOHN.—(1832-1865.) A noted officer of artillery in the Confederate army.

PERRYVILLE (Ky.), BATTLE OF.—Fought Oct. 8, 1862. A desperate fight between McCook's corps of Buell's army and about an equal force of Confederates under Bragg. The Union army lost 900 killed, 2,900 wounded, and 500 missing. The Confederate loss was about the same.

PETERSBURG (Va.), SIEGE OF.—Petersburg is situated twenty-two miles southeast of Richmond and in the Civil War it was strongly fortified, being one of the defenses of that city. Beginning with June 16, 1864, the Federal forces under Grant made several unsuccessful assaults upon it and finally settled down to a regular siege. On July 30 an enormous mine with 8,000 pounds of powder was sprung, making a large breach called the crater. The attack that followed was repulsed with heavy loss. Final operations against the fortifications were begun March 25, 1865. Sheridan's victory, April 1, at Five Forks, rendered the position of Petersburg untenable, and the Federal troops captured it April 3. This capture sealed the fate of Richmond.

PHELPS, JOHN W.—(1813-1885.) An American soldier, born in Vermont. After graduation from West Point, he served in the Florida, Mexican and Civil wars. He rose to the rank of brigadier-general and took part in General Butler's New Orleans expedition. He was declared an outlaw by the Confederate government for



arousing the negro slaves. On an appeal to the United States government he was not sustained. He then resigned his commission. When, later, the slaves were armed by the United States government he was offered a commission of major-general, but he declined it.

PICKETT, GEORGE EDWARD.—Born at Richmond, Va., 1825; died at Norfolk, Va., 1875. A Confederate general, celebrated for leading at Gettysburg, Pa., a charge that will ever be famous in history. He was graduated from West Point in 1846 and was at once made a lieutenant, in which capacity he served in the Mexican War; in 1855 he became a captain. Early in 1861 he resigned from the U. S. army and entered the Confederate service, as colonel of a Virginia regiment. He displayed conspicuous ability and gallantry and before the end of 1862 he was a major-general. After two days' fighting at Gettysburg, Gen. Lee determined (July 3, 1863) to assail the Union position on Cemetery Ridge by a direct charge, in the hope of breaking the line. Pickett's division, which was composed entirely of Virginia troops, the flower of Lee's army, was selected to make the attempt. The charge was one of the most gallant in the annals of war. Pickett and his soldiers—a forlorn hope—swept across the intervening valley, in the teeth of a murderous fire of artillery and musketry from Cemetery Ridge. The men fell by hundreds, but the gaps were closed and the fast melting column dashed on. Up the ridge the Confederates went, the center of a converging fire from front and flanks. So impetuous was the rush that the Union line was pierced. But Pickett's supports had failed to keep the pace which he had set. Union reinforcements were hurried to the menaced point and the few that remained of the assailants were beaten back. Gen. Pickett, who was in the forefront of the charge, escaped unharmed, but three-fourths of his officers and men, within thirty minutes were killed, wounded, or taken. Of his three brigade commanders, Armistead and Garnett were killed and Kemper desperately wounded. Thus Lee's supreme effort failed; he gave up the battle, and that night his army started on its return to Virginia. (See LEE, ROBERT E).

PIERCE, RICE A.—An American soldier and statesman, born in Weakley County, Tenn., in 1842. He fought two years in the Eighth Tennessee cavalry, Confederate states army. He was wounded and made prisoner near Jackson, Tenn., in 1864, and imprisoned until the end of the war. He was admitted to the bar of South Carolina in 1868, and served several terms in Congress.

PIKE, ALBERT.—Born at Boston, 1809; died at Washington, D. C., 1891. A lawyer and author. He began the practice of law in Arkansas in 1836, and became a counsel for the Indians in their sale of

lands to the Federal government, commanded a squadron of Arkansas volunteer cavalry during the Mexican War; was appointed Indian commissioner of the Confederacy; obtained the rank of brigadier-general in the Confederate army; practised law at Washington from about 1868-80; published "Prose Sketches and Poems," etc.

PILLOW, GIDEON JOHNSON.—Born in Tennessee, 1806; died in Arkansas, 1878. A noted soldier of the U. S. army and afterward of the Confederate army. He served with conspicuous gallantry in the Mexican War as brigadier-general and major-general, participating in several of the prominent battles. After the war he retired from the army and engaged in the practice of law in Tennessee. At the beginning of the Civil War he entered the Confederate service as a brigadier-general. At Fort Donelson (Feb., 1862), he was second in command under Gen. Floyd, when it was decided to give up the struggle. Floyd and Pillow escaped at night, across the Tennessee River, leaving Gen. Buckner to surrender the garrison to Gen. Grant. Pillow was not again prominent in the war.

PLEASANT HILL (La.), BATTLE OF.—A battle of the Civil War, fought April 9, 1864, between Gen. Banks, reinforced by A. J. Smith, and the Confederate forces under Kirby Smith and Taylor. The Confederates were defeated.

POPE, JOHN.—(1822-1892.) A noted officer of the United States army. After graduation from West Point he served in the Mexican War and was promoted for gallant conduct. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in 1861, and of regulars in 1862. He was in command of the army of Virginia at Bull Run. He then took command of the Northwest, and later of the Department of Missouri. He was made major-general in 1882, and retired in 1886.



## DAVID DIXON PORTER

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*He added luster to the American navy.*

UP TO the end of the nineteenth century, but three men had reached the full grade of admiral in the navy of the United States.

This rank, like those of lieutenant-general and general in the army, is not attained in the regular order of promotion. It is only bestowed as a recognition of service of extraordinary merit. In each case an act of Congress is necessary to revive the grade,

which again lapses on the death of the person

elevated to the position. David G. Farragut

was the first admiral and George Dewey was

the third. The second was the subject of

this sketch, who was born in Chester, Penn-

sylvania, in 1813. David Dixon Porter was

one of six sons, four of whom were officers in

the army or the navy of the United States. He

came of a family which was noteworthy for the

fact that through five generations it had served its

country on the ocean. His father, Commodore Da-

vid Porter, was on the frigate "Philadelphia" when she was

captured by the Tripolitans, and was imprisoned till the close of hos-

tilities. Afterward, during the last war with England, he commanded

the "Essex," his famous career in which made him a popular hero.

In an encounter with the British sloop of war "Alert," he compelled

his adversary to strike his colors in seven minutes. From such stock

sprang the future admiral, who was born while his father was cruis-

ing in the "Essex." It is worthy of note that one of the midship-

men on the "Essex" was David Glasgow Farragut, then eleven years

old.

The younger Porter took to the water at an early age. He went

on board his father's vessel when he was ten years old, and at fourteen

he was a midshipman. Then began a service of sixty-two years in

the United States navy, which, for effective and brilliant achievement,

it is difficult to parallel in the annals of naval warfare. While yet a

mere boy he was taken prisoner, during the early trouble with Spain,

and was held in confinement at Havana. He served twelve

years on the Mediterranean and in the United States coast survey.



In 1841 he was promoted to the rank of lieutenant and ordered to duty in Brazilian waters. The Mexican War, 1846-48, gave him an opportunity to show of what stuff he was made. He participated in every conflict along the coast, and manifested a dash, determination and courage that marked him for future distinction. After the close of the war, he was on furlough for four years and commanded mail steamers plying between New York and the Isthmus of Darien.

The Civil War opened to Porter a field for the exercise of his capabilities to the largest degree. No man, whatever his natural endowments, could have accomplished what Porter and Farragut did, unless he had been prepared by a course of special training. It is a singular coincidence that both of these—the only men who reached the rank of admiral until Dewey won it at Manila—trod the deck under the eye of the elder Porter, who was the father of one and had adopted the other—Farragut—when the latter was an orphan of nine years. The fatherless boy was treated by the commodore as one of his own sons and served with him throughout the War of 1812-14.

At the outbreak of the Civil War, Porter, then a lieutenant, was in command of the steamer "Powhatan," and was at once ordered to Fort Pickens, Florida, where he was engaged in some of the earliest operations of the war. He was then sent on a chase after the Confederate cruiser "Sumter," which, under the command of Admiral Raphael Semmes, was preying on the commerce of the North. Porter steamed more than ten thousand miles, but was not able to catch the elusive object of his quest. After his return from this long cruise, Porter was attached to the gulf blockading squadron and was stationed at the mouth of the Mississippi. While engaged in this duty, he conceived the idea that a fleet could ascend the river, "run" Forts Jackson and St. Philip, which were popularly believed to effectually bar the passage, and capture New Orleans, the chief commercial city of the South. At this time he was called to Washington, and laid his plan before Hon. Gideon Welles, Secretary of the Navy. It was received with favor, and after careful consideration, it was determined to make the attempt. The command of the expedition was offered to Porter, but he suggested and urged that the enterprise be placed in the hands of Commodore Farragut. The latter was of Southern birth, and the Washington authorities did not yet feel that they could safely put their trust in him. Porter convinced them of his devoted loyalty, and was sent to New York, where Farragut then was, to offer the command to him. Porter and Farragut talked over the subject thoroughly and Farragut said, "I will undertake it if you will go along with me." Porter readily agreed to this, and in the development of the plan he was given the command of an auxiliary mortar fleet.



This comprised twenty-one schooners, each of which carried a 13-inch mortar, convoyed by five war steamers. Farragut, with a powerful fleet of the best vessels in the navy, was in chief command. There was also a large coöperating land force, under General Benjamin F. Butler. No cost or effort was spared to promote the success of the momentous enterprise.

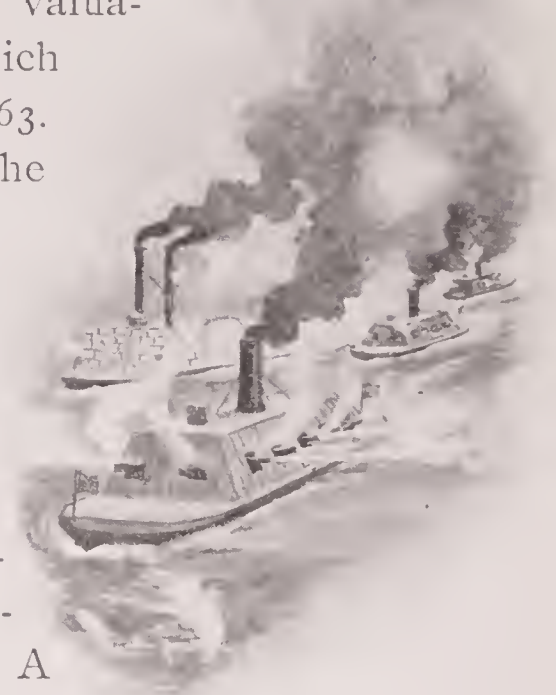
The entire fleet, including the transports bearing the troops of General Butler, sailed from Hampton Roads early in February, 1862. At the middle of April, the operations were actively begun. To prepare the way for the attempt of Farragut to pass the forts, Porter bombarded them continuously for six days and nights with his mortar fleet. Nearly seventeen thousand 13-inch shells were fired, which fell within and around the forts. They did much damage, though they did not seriously impair the armament. Then followed the famous river combat, the successful running of the forts by Farragut, and the immediate surrender of the city of New Orleans. After Farragut had passed up the river, Porter continued his bombardment of the forts and they were closely invested from the land side by General Butler. After four days they were surrendered to Porter, with their garrisons as prisoners of war. The enterprise was one of great magnitude, and its magnificent success, far-reaching in its results, electrified the loyal people of the nation. Honors were abundantly bestowed upon both Farragut and Porter, in which full recognition was given to the latter for the conception of the scheme and for his able and gallant assistance in its execution. The loss of New Orleans, and of the control of the Mississippi River—which was made complete a year later by the fall of Vicksburg and Port Hudson—was a blow from which the Confederacy did not and could not recover. It bisected the territory of the South and entirely cut off the vast productive region west of the river, embracing the states of Louisiana, Texas, Missouri and Arkansas, whose boundless supplies of meat and bread were indispensable to the proper subsistence of the great Confederate armies of the East.

For more than two years after the capture of New Orleans, Porter served with great distinction on the Mississippi River and its tributaries. With his mortar fleet, he accompanied Farragut up the river, engaging and passing the forts at Port Hudson and Vicksburg. During the remainder of the year 1862, he was constantly engaged in patrolling the rivers, capturing or destroying hostile vessels, and preventing the transportation of supplies from west to east by the Confederates. In September Farragut returned to New Orleans, again running the batteries, and Porter was assigned to the command of the Mississippi squadron, with the rank of acting rear-admiral. In January, 1863, he ascended the Arkansas River with a strong naval force,

and coöperated with General McClelland and General Sherman in the reduction of Arkansas Post, a strongly fortified point below Little Rock, the Arkansas capital. Porter's fire was so effectual as to silence the guns of the fort and it was assaulted and taken, with all its garrison, by the land forces. Porter was a most valuable coadjutor of General Grant in the operations which resulted in the capture of Vicksburg, April-July, 1863. On the night of April 16, Porter ran his fleet past the Vicksburg batteries. Every ship was struck but not one was seriously damaged. During the siege of the Confederate stronghold, Porter's ships were in active and constant service. For his distinguished efficiency and intrepidity, he received the thanks of Congress and was promoted to the full rank of rear-admiral.

During the spring of 1864, Rear-admiral Porter coöperated with General Banks in the Red River expedition, in command of a flotilla of heavy gunboats. A sketch of this expedition, its disastrous result and the rescue of Porter's fleet from otherwise certain capture and destruction, by a marvelous enterprise conceived and carried out by Lieutenant-colonel Bailey, of Wisconsin, is given in the biography of General Nathaniel Prentiss Banks, in this volume. In the autumn of that year Porter was ordered to the command of the North Atlantic blockading squadron. In December he personally directed the naval operations against Fort Fisher, the principal defense of Wilmington, North Carolina, in conjunction with General Butler, who, with a strong force of troops, was chief in command. With thirty-five vessels, Porter delivered a terrific bombardment, which almost wholly silenced the guns of the fort. Butler deemed it inadvisable to assault, and abandoned the enterprise. Porter asked permission to renew the attack, and so great was his confidence, that two weeks later another attempt was made, under the command of General Alfred Howe Terry. Porter's fleet was augmented to forty-four vessels, which for many hours pelted the fort with shot and shell. After one of the most furious bombardments in naval history, General Terry sounded his bugles, the soldiers sprang forward, and the work was quickly captured. During the last days of the Confederacy, Porter operated on the James River, against Richmond. After the city had been evacuated by the Confederates, Porter accompanied President Lincoln on his ride through the streets of the fallen capital.

When, after the war, the grades of general and lieutenant-general were conferred upon Grant and Sherman, the corresponding grades of admiral and vice-admiral were awarded to Farragut and Porter.





Admiral Farragut died in 1870, and Porter was then elevated to that rank, in recognition of his exalted patriotism, valor and devotion. Porter practically began and ended the service of the navy in the Civil War. He fired the first gun at Pensacola, Florida, April 17, 1861, and almost the last gun at Richmond, at the end of March, in 1865. No other name is more fully identified with the operations of the navy, during the whole of the four years of the conflict between the North and the South. After the war, Porter was for four years at the head of the Naval Academy at Annapolis, and performed a valuable service in building up that institution. He resigned in 1869, but continued on special duty in connection with naval affairs until 1890, so that he did not wholly relinquish his public duties until he was seventy-seven years of age. He died at his home in Washington, February 13, 1891. At the age of thirty-nine, he married a daughter of Commodore Patterson, who commanded the naval forces at the battle of New Orleans, in 1815. He had four sons, three of whom entered the military or naval service of the United States.

Admiral Porter was a gifted writer and won high commendation for his literary work. His most pretentious effort was the "History of the Navy in the War of the Rebellion," which is a recognized authority. He also wrote a life of his father, Commodore David Porter, and a volume of "Incidents and Anecdotes of the Civil War," which is a most pleasing and entertaining work. He entered the realm of fiction and wrote "Harry Martine" and "Allen Dare and Robert le Diable." The latter was dramatized and successfully produced on the stage.

PORTER, FITZ-JOHN.—Born, 1822. General in the U. S. army. Cashiered on the charge of disobedience of orders at the disastrous battle of Manassas, Va., 1862. In 1882 the sentence was remitted and later he was restored to the army.

PORT GIBSON (Miss.), BATTLE OF.—Fought May 2, 1863, the first under Gen. Grant in the campaign east of the Mississippi River that ended with the capture of Vicksburg.

PORT HUDSON (La.), CAPTURE OF.—This important Confederate stronghold, on the Mississippi River one hundred and fifty miles above New Orleans, held out against the siege and assaults of Gen. Banks until after the fall of Vicksburg. On July 6, 1863, it surrendered with 6,300 men and fifty-one guns.

PORT ROYAL (S. C.), CAPTURE OF.—A fleet of over fifty vessels under Commodore Dupont, and a land force of 10,000 men under

Gen. Sherman, sailed from Hampton Roads, Oct. 29, 1861, reached Port Royal, Nov. 3, and quickly captured the Confederate stronghold.

POTOMAC, ARMY OF THE.—A grand division of the Union army during the Civil War, comprising the troops which were assembled at Washington and operated directly and continually for the capture of Richmond. This it accomplished after a struggle which lasted four years.

PRAIRIE GROVE (Ark.), BATTLE OF.—A severe but inconclusive battle of the Civil War, fought Sept. 7, 1862.

PRENTISS, BENJAMIN MAYBERRY.—Born in Virginia, 1819. An American soldier; prominent in the Mexican War and in the Civil War.

PRESTON, JOHN SMITH.—(1809-1881.) An orator, Secessionist leader, and Confederate general.

PRICE, STERLING.—(1809-1867.) An American soldier, born in Prince Edward Co., Va. He served in the Mexican and Civil wars. He defeated General Lyons at Wilson's Creek, and captured Lexington, taking 3,500 prisoners.

RAINS, GABRIEL JAMES.—(1803-1881.) An American general; served in the Seminole and Mexican wars; and won distinction in the Confederate service in 1861.

RAYMOND (Miss.), BATTLE OF.—One of the actions of Gen. Grant, preparatory to the siege of Vicksburg. The loss of the Confederates was 900; that of the Federals 400.

RED RIVER CAMPAIGN.—For an account of this unsuccessful campaign, and the thrilling adventures of the fleet, see BANKS, NATHANIEL PRENTISS, 120.

RENO, MARCUS A.—(1835-1889.) An officer in the army of the U. S.; served through the Civil War.

RESACA (Ga.), BATTLE OF.—The first great battle of the Atlanta campaign, 1864; between Gen. Sherman and Gen. Joseph E. Johnston.

RICH MOUNTAIN (W. Va.), BATTLE OF.—One of the early actions of the Civil War, July 11, 1861. A Confederate force under Gen. Garnett was defeated by Gen. McClellan.

ROANOKE ISLAND (N. C.), CAPTURE OF.—An expedition under Gen. Burnside, with a naval contingent under Commodore Goldsborough, captured this place, together with the Confederate garrison of about 3,000 men, and their commander, Gen. Wise, Feb. 8, 1862.

RODMAN, THOMAS JACKSON.—(1816-1871.) A noted artillery officer of the U. S. army. Inventor of the Rodman gun.



## WILLIAM STARKE ROSECRANS

*A general whom all his soldiers loved.*



“**O**LD ROSEY,” as he was familiarly called by his soldiers, was one of the generals of the Civil War who was not afraid to fight. Conspicuous for his personal courage, at critical moments he dashed into the vortex of battle to encourage his hard-pressed men, wholly regardless of danger. At Stone River, as he galloped across a field which was swept by musketry and artillery, a cannon ball took off the head of Colonel Garesché, his chief of staff, who rode by his side. That Rosecrans was a capable commander, was clearly shown on many well-fought fields during the first two years of the war. In the latter part of 1863, at Chickamauga, he passed into a shadow from which he did not emerge. At the crisis of the battle, he committed an error of judgment, owing to a misapprehension of existing facts and conditions, which the authorities at Washington could not overlook, and he was soon afterward relieved of his command. He was sent to an unimportant field of duty and disappeared from public view. His checkered military career is a striking example of a high and well-earned reputation unmade by one fatal error. But Rosecrans will always be remembered with gratitude for what he did while he was in the saddle; and time has softened the harsh judgment that, in the day of stress, was passed upon him when his defeated army, saved from rout by the sturdy valor of General Thomas, withdrew from the bloody field of Chickamauga and planted itself for the defense of Chattanooga.

William Starke Rosecrans was born in Kingston, Ohio, in 1819. He graduated at West Point in 1842, but resigned from the army in 1854, his rank then being a first lieutenant of engineers. At the beginning of the Civil War, he volunteered as an aid to General McClellan, who was organizing the volunteer forces of Ohio. Very soon, however, he was commissioned a brigadier-general and ordered to western Virginia. He defeated the Confederates at Rich Mountain and Carnifex Ferry and in several minor engagements. He displayed great capacity and energy, and succeeded to the command of

the Department of Ohio when McClellan was called to the Army of the Potomac.

In the spring of 1862, General Rosecrans held a subordinate command, under General Halleck, during the siege of Corinth, Mississippi. After the evacuation of that place by the Confederates, Halleck's army was broken up and Rosecrans was placed in command in northern Mississippi. Here, in the autumn of that year, he won signal victories at Iuka and Corinth, over the Confederates commanded by Van Dorn and Price. His defense of Corinth was especially notable, and he became at once an object of popular applause. Just at this time the War Office at Washington was looking for one to take the place of General Buell, whose operations with the Army of the Ohio, in Kentucky, had been far from satisfactory. Rosecrans seemed to meet the requirements, and in October, 1862, he relieved Buell. He reorganized his army into three corps, changed its name to the Army of the Cumberland, and on the day after Christmas his bugles sounded the advance from Nashville, where the troops had been quartered for some weeks. His corps commanders were McCook, the right; Thomas, the center; Crittenden, the left. He had about forty thousand men.

The objective point was Murfreesboro, thirty miles to the south-eastward, where lay the Confederate army, of about equal strength, commanded by General Bragg. The advance was stoutly resisted at times, but the enemy was steadily pushed backward, and on December 30, the embattled lines confronted each other on the banks of Stone River, within a mile of Murfreesboro. Both armies were ready to fight, and at once. Each commander determined to attack his adversary at dawn, and the two plans were precisely alike—that is, each was to assail his enemy's right flank and endeavor to roll it back upon the center and left. At daylight, on December 31, the troops of Rosecrans were in motion to attack, but Bragg had started a little earlier and was the first to strike. He had massed two-fifths of his army against the extreme Union right, where the ground was covered with a dense cedar thicket, and fell upon McCook with the greatest fury. McCook's position was faulty, and unquestionably there had been a lack of prudence in guarding against surprise. Many of the soldiers were at breakfast, and artillery horses were not yet harnessed, when the Confederate wave dashed upon the flank. Panic and rout were inevitable. Two of McCook's divisions were quickly broken into fragments and swept from the field. More than three thousand prisoners and twenty cannon were carried away by the enemy. The remaining division of McCook was commanded by General Sheridan, and his magnificent fight,—in which all of his three brigade commanders were slain and half his soldiers were killed or wounded,—

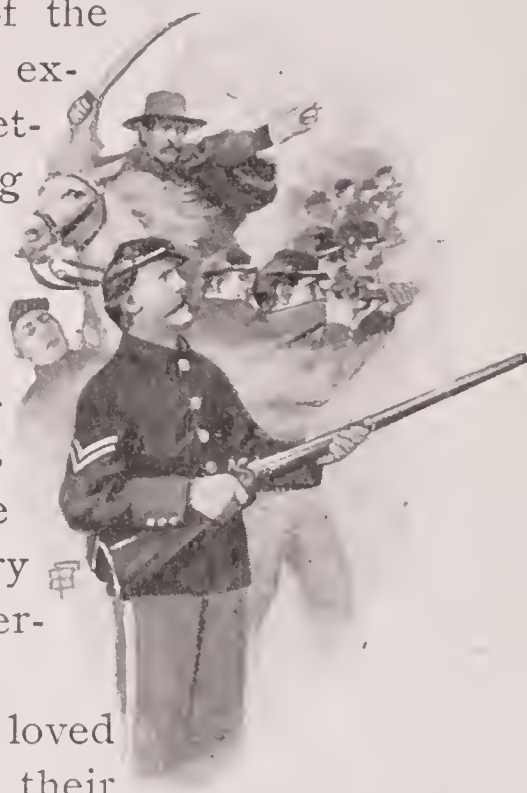


gave time for Rosecrans to summon the troops of Crittenden from the left and establish a new line, which successfully resisted the fierce assaults of the Confederates. On January 2, the Confederate commander made one more attempt to break the Union line, but the attack was repulsed and resulted in nothing but a cruel sacrifice of life and limb. During the night of the third, Bragg evacuated Murfreesboro and drew away to the southeast.

For nearly six months Rosecrans lay inactive at Murfreesboro. Large reinforcements more than made good the heavy losses he had sustained at Stone River, and the Washington authorities became exceedingly impatient at the long period of inaction. For months they had urged another forward movement, with constantly increasing persistence and warmth. Rosecrans would not advance until he had a sufficient force of cavalry, which the War Department had been slow to supply. At the middle of June, the army broke camp and entered upon the brief but brilliant Tullahoma campaign. Bragg was most handsomely maneuvered out of his strong position in the mountains and fell back across the Tennessee River to Chattanooga.

After a few weeks of rest, Rosecrans again commanded "Forward!" He threw his three corps across the Tennessee simultaneously at three points, without opposition. His well-planned movements forced the Confederates to abandon Chattanooga, early in September; the mighty struggle for its permanent possession was to take place a few days later. Bragg's army had been augmented from every available source, even to the sending of Longstreet with two divisions from Lee's Virginia army, and its strength was ten thousand greater than that of the Union force. The issue was joined on September 19, and during that and the following day was fought one of the most bloody and stubbornly-contested battles of the war. The fighting of the first day resulted in little advantage to either side. The battle was renewed on Sunday, the twentieth, with the utmost determination. About noon an order from General Rosecrans, carelessly worded by the staff officer who reduced it to writing, and misinterpreted by the general to whom it was addressed, caused the quick withdrawal of a division from the line. Before the gap could be closed, the Confederates poured through, with results that were disastrous and nearly fatal. A large part of McCook's corps—the same that had been so badly broken at Stone River—was crushed and driven in dire confusion from the field, losing heavily in prisoners and guns. As chance would have it, General Rosecrans was at this moment in rear of McCook, and when the broken battalions came streaming back in hopeless rout, he leaped to the conclusion that the whole army had been defeated. Acting upon this belief, he galloped back to Chattanooga, twelve miles distant, for the

purpose of doing whatever could be done to defend that place, and prevent his demoralized soldiers from being captured or driven into the Tennessee River. This no doubt would have been the best thing for Rosecrans to do, had his assumption that the army had been routed proved to be correct. But he had been mistaken. Twenty-five thousand brave men, bravely led, still remained in compact form, under General Thomas, beating back the fierce assaults of the enemy. They stayed there, inspired by the matchless example of the "Rock of Chickamauga," and until the setting of the sun they held the Confederates at bay. During that night and the following day the army was safely withdrawn to Chattanooga. Rosecrans was held to have been gravely at fault in quitting the field, and he was relieved of the command of the Army of the Cumberland; his successor was General Thomas. Rosecrans was ordered to Missouri, where he conducted with credit some minor operations against General Price, but the country took little note of his service there, by reason of the overshadowing importance of events elsewhere.



Rosecrans was greatly endeared to his soldiers. They loved him for his genial good nature and his constant care for their needs; they admired him for his courage, his perfect fearlessness under fire. At Stone River he dashed along the line shouting: "Aim low, boys; give them a blizzard at their shins!"—and the soldiers yelled with enthusiasm as they loaded and fired with desperate energy.

General Rosecrans resigned from the army in 1876 and retired to the home of his family in California. He served four years in Congress and eight years as register of the United States Treasury. In 1889, tardy recognition was given him for his services during the war. Then seventy years of age, he was reappointed a brigadier-general and placed on the retired list. He died at Los Angeles, in 1898, in his eightieth year.

SAILOR'S CREEK (Va.), BATTLE OF.—April 6, 1865. One of the closing battles of the Civil War; disastrous to Gen. Lee.

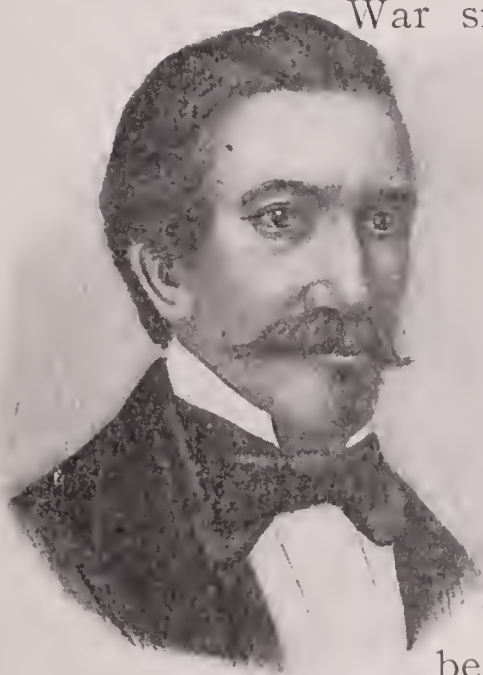
SCHOFIELD, JOHN McALLISTER.—Born, 1831. An American general, prominent in the Civil War. Made lieutenant-general of the army, 1895.



## RAPHAEL SEMMES

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*He scoured the seas and burned "Yankee" ships.*



BEFORE the Civil War, the influence of sea power had never been studied or expounded in the recent and brilliant manner of our own Captain Mahan, whose writings have deeply affected the marine policy of the great nations. Yet, looking back upon the Civil War situation, it would seem that the lack of naval power by the Confederacy had foredoomed it to failure, even if other circumstances had been more favorable than they proved to the cause of secession. The defensive position of the South was strong, but the Confederacy needed egress and ingress over sea, to provide the means for making its power of defense efficient and enduring. Had there been no effective blockade, or had there been naval force enough to keep one good port safely open, the Southern armies might have been spared those wasting campaigns northward, that had no other result than to hasten the fall of the Confederacy; and there would have been a fairer chance of tiring out the North. The naval administration at Richmond has suffered much obloquy since the war, at the hands of Southern writers, but its feebleness was probably due more to want of means than to lack of efficiency.

The South was not so largely represented in the navy as in the army before the war, and a larger proportion of Southern navy than of army officers adhered to the cause of the Union. Nevertheless, there was a good deal of hard and handsome work done by those who did espouse the Southern cause, and, now that the nation is reunited, there can be nothing but pleasure in contemplating the credit of their zeal and devotion reflected upon their nursing mother, the old navy of the United States. In their work for the South, they lacked nearly everything—shipbuilding and engine plants, proper armaments and equipments, and not least, perhaps, the material for a supply of skilled and disciplined seamen. They toiled and fought, and often they died, hopelessly; but, in life and death alike, they preserved, with their brethren of the Union navy, the honor of the naval profession.

The early exploits of the "Merrimac," which ended with her defeat by the little "Monitor," the commerce-destroying voyage of the "Alabama" and her battle to the death with the "Kearsarge," are about all that is popularly known of the doings of the Confederate navy. Such operations as those of the cruisers against the merchant shipping of the North are often regarded as a species of piracy, instead of legitimate and important acts of belligerency, and very few have heard of those rude submarine boats—the "Little Davids"—in which crew after crew was drowned in the effort to accomplish something against the powerful Federal blockaders.

The naval poverty of the Confederacy is illustrated by the squadron provided, after more than three years of warfare, for the defense of the harbor of Mobile, its most important port after New Orleans had been captured. This consisted of the ironclad ram "Tennessee" and three converted side-wheel wooden gunboats, carrying in all twenty-two guns, large and small, and four hundred and seventy officers and men; the whole squadron being outclassed by such Federal ships as the "Hartford" and the "Brooklyn." Popular naval history, however, regards not the construction of war ships, but their destructive performances, for which reason Raphael Semmes remains the great figure of the Confederate navy.

Semmes was in his fifty-second year when the Civil War broke out, and, as far back as the Mexican War, had commanded the brig "Somers" in the blockade of Vera Cruz. At the time he resigned to join the Southern cause, as a citizen of Alabama, he had been, for nearly two years, secretary of the lighthouse board at Washington, under Professor Joseph Henry. He was learned and scientific, and a trifle eccentric. In the navy he was an authority upon international law, for he had a thorough legal education and had been regularly admitted to the bar. He was a man of striking appearance, with a determined expression, knit brows, searching eyes, hair brushed defiantly up from the forehead, a fierce-looking, turned-up mustache and a twisted "imperial." His face was suggestive of that fiery Union general, Kearny, who had, however, more regular features and a calmer look. The fierceness of Semmes was all on the outside, for he was a gentle-hearted man.

During May, 1861, the alteration of the Gulf steamer "Habana" into the cruiser "Sumter" was concluded at New Orleans. Semmes was appointed to the command, got his vessel fitted out and manned, and, near the beginning of July, made a daring escape past the steam frigate "Brooklyn," and kept the sea for six months, capturing seventeen prizes. In January, 1862, the "Sumter" put into Gibraltar, where, as the British neutrality laws permitted neither refit nor increase of



force, she was paid off, laid up and eventually sold. Semmes was wanted for the command of a better ship, that the Confederate naval agent at Liverpool was having built expressly for a cruiser.

By means of his secret service fund, the United States Minister at London secured early much detailed information of the building of the "Alabama," which he laid before the British government. But the transaction had been skillfully covered by the intervention of English representatives of the Confederate naval agent, and the character and purpose of the vessel as a merchantman was persistently maintained, so that it was not until July 29, 1862, that the law officers of the Crown were convinced that the building of the vessel was in violation of the neutrality laws, and advised her immediate seizure. Probably with a suspicion of what was coming, that very day the vessel steamed down the Mersey on a trial trip, from which she did not return. She went directly to the Azores, where Semmes and the other officers were awaiting her, together with a transport containing her battery, small arms, and ammunition and stores; and off one of the islands, but on the high seas, the armament and stores were transferred to the new cruiser. On a beautiful Sunday morning, August 24, 1862, the Confederate States ship "Alabama" was formally placed in commission, her colors were broken out, on the Atlantic ocean, which nobody owned, and eighty men from the two vessels then in her company enlisted in the Confederate navy, as the beginning of a crew.

The cruise of the "Alabama" lasted two months short of two years. She was expressly built and intended as a commerce destroyer, —still a favorite type of war ship,—and as such was the most successful in naval history.

Semmes had intended to lie off Sandy Hook, where his captures might have been enormous, but an autumn gale near the Newfoundland coast shook the "Alabama" so badly that he ran down to the Caribbean Sea for smoother weather. Here he learned of the Federal expedition against Galveston, and planned a night attack on the transports by passing into the harbor through the convoy of war ships, compelled to anchor on the outer bar. But the "Alabama" was sighted by the war ships, and, on the supposition that she was merely a blockade-running merchant ship, she was pursued far out to sea by the "Hatteras," a converted river steamer, greatly her inferior in fighting power. The "Alabama" had no difficulty in sinking the "Hatteras" in a fight of a quarter of an hour, and, in the darkness of night, was enabled, by quick work with the boats, to take all the survivors from the sinking ship and give them a sailor's welcome on board the conquering vessel.

Coaling at Kingston, Jamaica, the "Alabama" proceeded to the South Atlantic, thence over to the Cape of Good Hope, thence into the Indian Ocean and the China Sea, and back over the same route. By this time she had paralyzed the American merchant service. Ships lay idle in home or foreign ports, or were transferred to a foreign flag. The naval administration at Washington commissioned a number of fast cruisers to run down the "Alabama." She had been at sea nearly two years, and on June 11, 1864, entered the French port of Cherbourg, where her request for docking and repairs was referred to Paris. Action there was slow on account of the obligations of neutrality, and, meantime, the United States sloop of war "Kearsarge," Captain John A. Winslow, one of her pursuers, entered the harbor. Without waiting for docking or repairs, Semmes sent word to the captain of the "Kearsarge" that he would go outside and fight him as soon as he had taken in coal.

The battle opened at 11:10 o'clock on Sunday morning, June 19, 1864, at a distance of six or seven miles from the French shore, it having been Captain Winslow's purpose to draw his enemy as far out to sea as possible, to prevent him from running back inside the three-mile limit, established by international law, if the battle should go against him. It was fitting that in going out to meet the "Kearsarge," the "Alabama" should have been accompanied by a French ironclad and by the English yacht "Deerhound." The sympathies of many French and English people were openly enlisted on the Southern side, and the strong moral support of his friends doubtless afforded Semmes great encouragement. In size, armament and complement of men, the combatants were as nearly equal, perhaps, as could have been possible. Most of the "Alabama's" crew were Englishmen, and the gunners were admitted to have been picked from her Majesty's gunnery ship "Excellent." The battery of the "Kearsarge" consisted of seven guns: two 11-inch, one 30-pounder rifle, and four light 32-pounders; that of the "Alabama" consisted of eight guns—one heavy 68-pounder of 9,000 pounds weight, one 100-pounder rifle, and six heavy 32-pounders. In the engagement, the "Alabama" fought seven guns and the "Kearsarge" five. The "Alabama" began hostilities by firing a broadside while the ships were about a mile apart, and an hour and a half later she went to the bottom. A long-range fight would be favorable to the "Alabama" and a short one to the "Kearsarge," and the latter had her way, owing to Winslow's cleverness in forcing his enemy off shore and out to sea.





So the action was fought with the ships from a quarter to a half mile distant from each other, both steaming around a common circle, and watched by thousands on the shore. A 100-pound shell from the "Alabama" lodged in the stern post of the "Kearsarge," shaking her from stem to stern, and would have ended the fight had it exploded, but a defective fuse saved the Union vessel. The "Alabama's" fatal wound was inflicted fifty minutes after the fight began, by one of the low-aimed 11-inch shells that tore a great hole in the side of the Confederate vessel, causing her to careen as the water rushed in and put out the furnace fires. After a vain attempt to make the French coast, the white flag was shown and a boat was sent to the "Kearsarge" to report the sinking state of the vessel.

Probably from the strain of the short, but severe action, the commander of the Federal ship did not take those prompt measures for the rescue of his imperiled enemies habitual to English-speaking naval men. He hailed the British steam yacht "Deerhound," that had been watching the fight and had now come up under the stern of the "Kearsarge," and asked the commander to do what he could to help the men of the sinking ship. He inadvertently omitted to steam the "Kearsarge" up among the drowning men, though his two boats were at last sent to the rescue. The British yacht did much of the rescue work and naturally took those she saved, including Semmes, with her to England. The complaints made by the captain of the "Kearsarge," because they were not brought to him as prisoners, gave great offense in England, and much annoyance to the Navy Department at Washington, which did not share its gallant subordinate's illusion that the neutral British yacht had become a tender to his vessel. The "Alabama" was bravely fought, and the victor as bravely and with more skill. Good as the mixed crew of the "Alabama" was, the native crew of the "Kearsarge" was better.

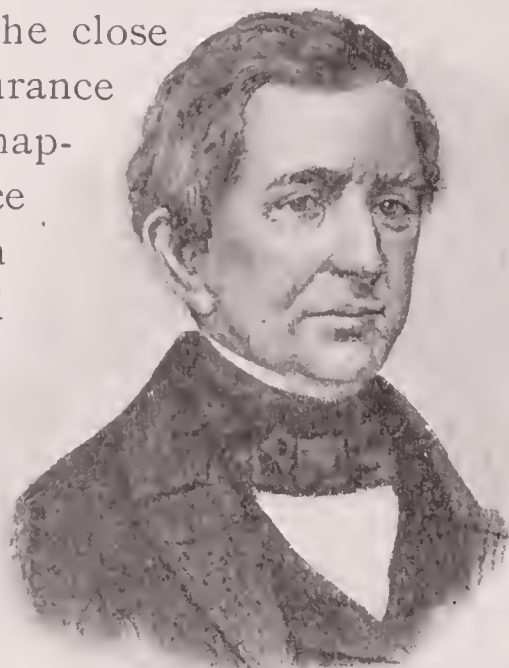
Semmes made his way home, and was promoted to the grade of rear-admiral. In February, 1865, he succeeded to the command of the James River squadron, defending the water approach to Richmond. He kept the Federal gunboats below and his squadron in good order till Richmond fell, when he destroyed his vessels, made his way to Danville, the new and momentary capital, and thence to North Carolina, where he was included in the surrender of Johnston's army. He died in Mobile in 1877, a month before his sixty-eighth birthday, after twelve years of honorable and industrious poverty. Less than forty years after the great fight in the English Channel, the names of the old "Kearsarge" and "Alabama," and the memories of their captains, Winslow and Semmes, were revived in two of the finest battleships that the world has ever seen.

## WILLIAM HENRY SEWARD

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*A great statesman of the war period.*

“THE jaunty Secretary of State”—so a newspaper article of Lincoln’s time styled William H. Seward, and the phrase fitted him exactly. There were some bad hours during the Civil War, but nothing in Mr. Seward’s speech, manner or official or social doings ever showed them. With him the business of life was to live, and he lived his days as they came, able to say at the close of each that he had lived, and had therefore taken assurance of the morrow, which might not come. “Whatever happens, I have had my whack,” said Lord Chief-justice Cockburn, reminiscent of the good time that had been his before the wigs and robes of crown offices and judgeships began to sit heavily upon him; and when he and Seward cronied together, during the latter’s visit to London in their later years, the summing up would have answered for both. “It will all be over within ninety days,” was Seward’s confident assurance to a foreign minister, who called upon him in the midst of the warlike turmoil following the bombardment of Fort Sumter, in search of authentic points for a dispatch to his government. Though the war dragged along for four years, there was never a time when Seward was not ready to convince himself, and willing to convince others, that it would “all be over within ninety days.”



Seward’s fondness and aptitude for the pleasures of life served the country well in his conduct of its foreign affairs. They brought him into the best personal relations with the foreign envoys accredited to Washington, whose representations to their governments naturally received some color from the agreeable and confident impressions acquired from himself; they helped him to gain time when time was needed, and they smoothed some difficulties that otherwise would not have been smoothed. Popular attention was so fixed upon matters at home during the war, that to this day little is generally known of the great and serious part that fell to Seward in the preservation of the Union, and how well he played it, despite his being a gentleman at ease. Indeed, it was because he was at ease with himself and the



rest of the world, that he was able to play the part that fell to him. If men who were always serious could not always take him seriously, he had the advantage in doing in a happy way serious work, that all their seriousness would have left undone.



Mr. Seward was born May 16, 1801, in New York state. He was well brought up and well educated, and at nineteen had graduated well from college. He received a good professional training for the law, and at twenty-two began practice at Auburn, which remained thenceforth his home. He could have done well at the law had he been earnest about it, but the law was a drudge and politics a delight, and into politics he plunged. So far as fitness was concerned, it was a happy choice; for from the days of Burr to Van Buren the Democratic party in the state of New York had been organized with such consummate skill and managed with such admirable discipline, that it became the political model for the Union, and called upon the Whigs of the Empire State for their highest shrewdness and ability to rival their alert and powerful enemy. To this necessity for craft and capacity Seward owed his early rise. At twenty-nine he was elected to the senate of New York, a body distinguished for the character and ability of its members. He was but thirty-three years old when he received the Whig nomination for governor, then regarded as the greatest office except the presidency, and, although unsuccessful, he held his own so well with the party during the campaign and the interval that, four years later, in 1838, he was renominated and was elected. During his term as governor was formed that famous triumvirate, consisting of Thurlow Weed, Horace Greeley and himself, that so powerfully influenced the politics of New York and of the Union in the Whig interest, and from which Greeley, years afterward, broke away in an abusive letter to Seward, accusing him and Weed of selfishness, ingratitude and treachery.

After leaving the governorship, in 1842, Seward remained for some time out of office, successfully practicing his profession, and recognized as the head of the Whig party in the state, which was practically managed by Weed, with Greeley as the journalistic crusader. During this interval of private life, the slavery question became prominent by reason of Southern designs to add the immense territory of Texas to the domain of the Union for slavery purposes. This agitated the Northern Whigs, who were willing to leave slavery alone, but desired

no further extension of it. Conforming to the popular feeling of his party, Seward took an antislavery attitude, and in a speech at Cleveland, Ohio, in 1848, he denounced slavery as an aristocratic institution, humiliating to labor, which was the true foundation of a democratic republic. This was giving to the antislavery movement a political basis which the crusade of the Abolitionists, who attacked slavery on moral and religious grounds, had not supplied. The speech excited great interest, North and South. Its adroit appeal to the feelings of workingmen and small farmers took effect, and it sent Seward to the United States Senate, in 1849, by an election in the New York legislature that was triumphal in the vote and in the enthusiasm, and was a defiance to slavery. He entered the Senate as a Whig, of course, but his antislavery bias made him distasteful to both proslavery and conservative Whigs, including Clay and Webster, the national leaders of the party, whose compromise measures of 1850, including the severe fugitive slave act, he would not support. Fillmore, the Vice-president, also from New York, was on the slavery side, but President Taylor, a Southern man, had been against the compromise, and had given Seward control of the patronage of the general government in New York, to the exclusion of Fillmore and his friends, who became anti-administration men. Taylor's death brought Fillmore to the presidency and this shut out Seward and his section of the party.

Clay, Webster and the Whig party were now all dead and gone, and Seward, Sumner, Chase and Benjamin F. Wade, of Ohio, became the leaders in the Senate of the new Republican party; devoted, among other things, to the purpose of putting slavery where the public mind could rest in the certainty of its ultimate extinction, a keynote struck by Abraham Lincoln while a Free-Soil Whig in Illinois. The new party held its first presidential convention at Philadelphia, in 1856, the year of its organization, and Seward, as an antislavery pioneer and leader, was in the minds of the delegates for a unanimous nomination. But Seward deemed the movement for a new party to be premature, so long as a chance remained for reorganizing the Whig party on antislavery lines; and, believing that in its young enthusiasm it would be more successful in making a noise than in winning votes, he emphatically declined what he considered the doubtful honor of a nomination. Chase was the next choice, but he had been so recently an active Democrat that he was objectionable to the late Whigs in his own state. John C. Fremont, of California, was nominated because he was already the choice of the Free-Soil element of the lately powerful "Know-nothing" party. As it turned out, the new party was much stronger than Seward suspected, and had he been the candidate he would almost surely have been elected. The campaign in



the North was most enthusiastic, and Fremont being an unknown quantity in politics, the party cry became "Fremont and Jessie" — the latter, his wife, and an object of popular worship in the West, being a daughter of Thomas H. Benton, for thirty years a United States Senator from Missouri, and famous in Jackson's time as "Old Bullion." The party was beaten, but the defeat was one of the kind that leads to victory the next time, and for the next time Seward began to prepare.

In 1858, at Rochester, ten years after his notable Cleveland speech, Seward made a more famous speech, in which he declared the existing situation to be "an irrepressible conflict between opposing and enduring forces, and it means that the United States must and will, sooner or later, become either entirely a slaveholding nation or entirely a free labor nation." This speech was the death knell of further compromise. The North, which was much the stronger section, had no intention of being chained to the chariot wheels of slavery, which was proving ruinous to the South, and, as Lincoln had already argued that the Union could not permanently endure half slave and half free, a mighty resolve began to form in the free states that the United States should become "entirely a free labor nation."

Before the Republican national convention of 1860, the Democratic party had broken into free-soil and slavery factions, thus making assurance doubly sure for the Republicans. To the national convention, therefore, went the most imposing and influential delegation thus far seen at such an assembly, to make it certain that the nomination should not go to any other than its rightful claimant. To the convention, also, went Horace Greeley, shut out from his own state delegation for his virulent opposition to Seward, but with credentials from the new state of Oregon. That Greeley would endeavor to throw the great state of New York to the Democrats if Seward were nominated, seemed incredible, yet his frantic opposition hurt Seward immensely, and gave a sharp point to the more rational argument, that as so many Republican votes would have to come from conservative men, lately attached to the Democratic and Whig parties, it might be better not to nominate the antislavery "war-horse." The candidacy of Chase looked large without being strong, and the nomination almost slid into the long, sturdy and outstretched arms of Lincoln, of Illinois.

When Lincoln knew that he was elected, he lost no time in obtaining Seward's acceptance of the first place in his Cabinet. This was politic, for it made Seward's great following Lincoln's own friends, and was likely to save Lincoln from the danger that had beset almost every President in his first term, of losing a renomination through heartburnings over the distribution of patronage in New York. It was also wise, for Seward proved to be one of the men for the

hour. To Seward the offer was acceptable, because it made up the loss of the prestige caused by his defeat for the nomination, and would enable him to command the support of the administration and its army of officeholders in the convention of 1864, if Lincoln should not be able to command a renomination.

From the meeting of Congress, in December, 1860, until Lincoln's arrival nearly three months later, Seward was the representative of the incoming administration at Washington, and the importance of the position was greatly enhanced by Lincoln's inexperience, and his small acquaintance with the leaders of his party outside of his own state. The party, in fact, still regarded Seward as its leader, and Lincoln, until he could have opportunity to develop his own qualities for leadership, was obliged largely to conform to the party view.

When the fixed intention of the seceding states to stay out of the Union became evident, Seward fell in with the predominant Northern sentiment, expressed by Horace Greeley and Wendell Phillips, that they should be permitted to depart in peace. He believed that if the Union should be freed from the incubus of slavery, Canada would wish to come into it and would more than make good the loss of the slave states. Lincoln, however, would not hear of acquiescence in secession, and rejected Seward's advice to receive the commissioners sent by the newly-formed Confederate States to arrange terms of peaceable separation, payment for the national property in the seceded states, the navigation of the lower Mississippi, and future commercial intercourse. The determination of the South to secede, Lincoln's refusal to accept that determination, and the anti-coercion feeling in the North, made a block that in Seward's opinion could only result in a violent expulsion from the seceded states of the last vestige of national authority, with loss of all the advantages that might be had from an amicable separation. As a last resort to reunite the severed nation, Seward proposed to Lincoln a foreign war, in which South and North could again fight under the old flag. To that Lincoln would not agree, for the reasons that there was no country upon which war could justly be made, and that a foreign war would be used by the seceding states to assure their independence, and not to reunite with the North. Seward then furnished Lincoln with a written declaration that the administration was without a policy, that in the grave existing circumstances a dictator was urgently needed, and he offered either to become dictator to the administration himself, or to serve under any other member of the Cabinet whom Lincoln might prefer to himself. The President, also in writing, denied that the administration was without a policy, questioned the necessity for a dictatorship and expressed the opinion that he, himself, could not be



put aside, as virtually proposed. Before Seward could propose anything further, the attack on Fort Sumter and the sudden uprising of the North cut the Gordian knot.

When war came, Seward's ascendancy was shown by the manner in which the military and naval direction fell at once into his hands. He had his own military and naval advisers, and some of the earlier operations of the war were arranged by himself, without even the knowledge of the heads of the war and navy departments. This led to confusion and resentment, until the President intervened and restored the orderly course of administration.

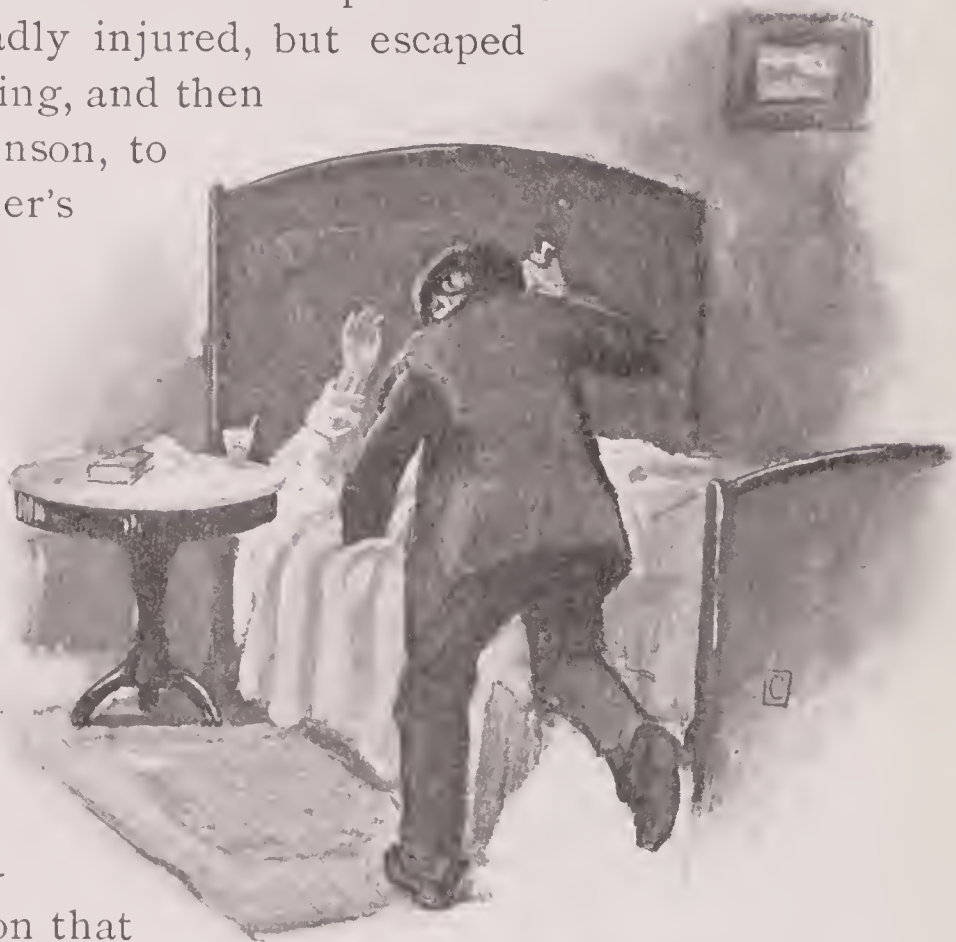
As Secretary of State, Seward complained of the proclamations of neutrality by the European governments, under which the war was treated as one between two belligerent powers, instead of an insurrection. But the censured governments answered that the Confederacy possessed all the attributes of an actual government as prescribed by the law of nations, including seaports and regularly organized military forces, as well as courts and all the machinery of administration; that the new government had completely displaced the old throughout the seceded territory, and that the government of the United States had from the beginning recognized the insurgents by treating them as prisoners of war when captured, and paroling or exchanging them, and according validity to their commissions and enlistments. The theoretical discussion over belligerency was brought to an end by the Trent affair.

Captain Charles Wilkes, commanding the Federal cruiser "San Jacinto," arrested the British mail steamer "Trent" on the high seas, and from among her passengers taken on in the West Indies forcibly removed to his own vessel James M. Mason and John Slidell, Confederate commissioners accredited to European governments, and their secretaries, and conveyed them to the United States. Wilkes, in his blind zeal, had intended also to bring in the mail steamer as a prize, but his executive officer, a loyal Virginian, who had sought to dissuade him from the apparently fatal blow he was aiming at the Union cause, happily prevented this by a clever maneuver, and was privately thanked for the service rendered his government. Seward realized the gravity of the task that Wilkes had thrown upon his hands, but while the hero was being idolized he could do nothing but "spar for time." The Confederate envoys being in a special manner his prisoners, he catered to popular feeling by grandly ordering their incarceration at Fort Warren, taking care privately that their treatment there should afford no additional ground of complaint. Fortunately, there was no ocean telegraphic cable then, and Seward got the time he indispensably needed. In a note to the British Minister, he placed the prisoners at his disposal, saying that the act of Captain

Wilkes was in the teeth of those neutral rights for which America had always contended, and that the United States could not afford to take an opposite position in order to sustain Wilkes.

Seward was included in the assassination plot by which President Lincoln was murdered. His assailant was the most desperate of the assistants of Booth, and Seward was badly injured, but escaped with his life. He was months in recovering, and then resumed his post under President Johnson, to whom he adhered throughout the latter's contest with Congress. He contended, rightly enough, that Johnson's policy toward the seceded states was the policy of Lincoln and he heartily approved it. The real trouble was that Lincoln's policy, as he left it, did not provide sufficiently for the protection of the emancipated negroes, and it was upon that rock that Johnson and Congress split, and upon which Lincoln and Congress probably would not have split. Seward's last public service was the purchase of Alaska from Russia, a transaction that seemed to have a good deal of jobbery about it at the time, but which turned out well in the end, as Seward always insisted it would.

In March, 1869, at the age of sixty-eight, Seward retired from public life, and its retrospect was far from pleasing. Less than nine years before, he had been deemed too radical to be the Republican candidate for the presidency, but the party leaders were now men whom Lincoln had learned to dread before his death, and who forgot or cared not for Seward's past in reading him out of the party as a traitor to its principles. A politician all his life, with an occasional lapse into statesmanship, he had now met a politician's fate. Broken health, the shock of the assassin's assault, intense family bereavements and brooding upon the clouded end of his political career, so reduced him, bodily and mentally, that a tour of the world was arranged, in the hope of assuring to him at least a green old age. He was received abroad with the distinction due to the statesman of the "irrepressible conflict," and the great minister, who had guided the affairs of the republic through the Civil War and the Mexican intervention; nor was his kindly attempt in behalf of the unfortunate Maximilian forgotten in high quarters. He came back greatly interested and enlivened by his tour, but died two years later at Auburn, his home for half a century, October 10, 1872.





## PHILIP HENRY SHERIDAN

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*Who galloped "From Winchester, twenty miles away."*

"SHERIDAN'S Ride" is a poem highly flavored with fiction, not at all relished by the subject of it while he lived, but probably destined to stand as the ultimate fact with the public, which likes its history in pleasant form and is not particularly concerned about the truth. Sheridan was a soldier, a whole soldier, and nothing but a soldier. When we see him in camp, on the march, or the battlefield, we see the whole man. Apart from his military qualities, he had no personality to distinguish him from the multitude. But as his military qualities carried him very high, they possess an interest in themselves. His name has been linked with that of Skobelev, the Russian, who came on the scene later than Sheridan, each being described as the genius of war embodied in a man. But Skobelev had a brilliancy of manner, and a restlessness and versatility of intellect, quite foreign to the American soldier. Skobelev would have conquered worlds could he have followed his soaring disposition; Sheridan was content when he saw the rebellion conquered in his own country. Skobelev was of the type of Napoleon, Sheridan of the type of Blucher, and from one type to the other is a long distance.

There is nothing mysterious or puzzling about Sheridan's military genius. It consisted of a quick and unquenchable courage in action, combined with a careful and even cautious attention to preparation and management of the fight. For the first quality he has had full credit with the public; for the second, credit only among military men. He no more liked the title of "Fighting Phil Sheridan," with the devil-may-care recklessness it implied, than another distinguished general liked to be called "Fighting Joe Hooker." Both declaimed against the distorted picture thus drawn of them.

Sheridan was born in 1831, at Albany, New York, of Irish parentage. In his early childhood his parents removed to Ohio. He was twenty-two when he graduated from the Military Academy. Nearly seven years were spent in garrison life as a lieutenant of infantry, when the resignation of Southern officers brought him the grade of captain, in 1861. Though colonelcies and brigadierships in the volun-



teer army were falling thick among West Pointers, Sheridan had neither the political nor military influence to obtain promotion in the volunteers. But the civilian generals needed trained staff officers to keep them right with army regulations and usages, and Captain Sheridan was detailed from the line to serve as a quartermaster in Missouri. He was not a bad quartermaster, but he did not love the work. Some of his brother officers, who had gone up in rank, were sympathetic, but their sympathy brought neither promotion nor service at the front.

In the spring of 1862, the discontented and unfortunate little quartermaster came under the command and personal notice of Halleck. It was the turning point of his fortunes. Halleck was a distinguished graduate of the Military Academy, who, in civil life, had grown rich and renowned, and was then the rising general of the Union army, having the greatest reputation and the largest field of operations. Far apart as the two men were, Halleck became interested in Sheridan and resolved to look out for him in some way. In May, 1862, the governor of Michigan came to Halleck's headquarters at Corinth, Mississippi, to look after one of his cavalry regiments that was going to pieces from mismanagement and dissension. He found things so bad that he asked Halleck for a West Pointer to serve as colonel. Halleck named Sheridan, and backed up his recommendation so warmly that the governor made the appointment and saw the new colonel installed before he went home.

Sheridan now had his chance, and lost no time in doing well with it. In less than a week the regiment was on a raid and in a cavalry fight, and its commander was commander of the expedition. In another month Sheridan was at Booneville, Mississippi, in command of his own and another cavalry regiment, where he was attacked by the cavalry brigade of Chalmers. He fought Chalmers for seven hours, gaining time to be reinforced and to beat off the enemy. Rosecrans, to whose army, under Halleck, he belonged, issued a general order to the troops, praising Sheridan almost extravagantly. Before the month was out, Halleck was ordered to Washington as general-in-chief, and as soon as he got there, Rosecrans telegraphed him to have Sheridan made a brigadier, saying, "More cavalry massed under such an officer would be of great use to us; he would not be a stampeding general." Halleck was more than willing, but the political pressure for brigadierships for others was too great, and the appointment was not then made. Rosecrans, impatient to have Sheridan in a larger place, telegraphed Halleck again, saying of him this time, "He is worth his weight in gold." Halleck renewed his efforts with the Secretary of War and the President, and Rosecrans being then in high repute, the



pressure of the two great officers could not be resisted. Thus, when Sheridan's luck came, it came quickly.

Sheridan's first assignment was to a brigade of infantry, in need of an experienced commander. In that character he marched to assist in repelling Bragg's invasion of Kentucky. Here fortune favored him again; for the command of a division suddenly fell vacant and he was deemed the best available officer to fill it. In the battle of Perryville, October 8, 1862, Sheridan's division received the shock of the Confederate assault, which broke his lines. Then, for the first time, he displayed, on a large scale, that characteristic power of rallying and reforming beaten men, and the day was saved. In the battle of Murfreesboro, he successfully resisted the enemy's repeated efforts to destroy the right wing of the Union army, while the left was taking a new position, rapidly changing direction to meet attacks in front and flank. The gallantry of Sheridan was an inspiration to his men, and the superb valor which they displayed, on that last day of the year 1862, is rarely surpassed in the records of war. The two other divisions of the right wing had crumbled into fragments before the impetuous attack and had disappeared from the field. The stress fell

upon Sheridan, who held his position against thrice his number, gaining priceless moments for the new formation, which resulted in the complete arrest of the fierce assault. In Sheridan's brief but bloody combat, all of his three brigade commanders were killed, and nearly fifty per cent of his soldiers were killed or wounded. For this splendid service, the warm-hearted Rosecrans obtained for him the commission of a major-general.

At Chickamauga his division was caught in the rout of a portion of the Union army, but the next day he got as much of it together as he could and went out to help Thomas, who, being in position, had held the center fast, and was safely withdrawing the army. After Grant came into command at Chattanooga, he found occasion to praise Sheridan highly for the way in which he had carried his men up to and over the rifle pits upon the crest of Missionary Ridge and, still pressing on, had made important captures from the fleeing Confederates.

Sheridan's reputation was now very high, but there seemed nothing before him except the continued command of an infantry division during the apparently short remainder of the war, and the rank of major or lieutenant-colonel in the peace establishment afterward. Three years of warfare had brought a superabundance of military talent to the front, and only a few of the notable ones could be provided for after the war. As he had nothing but an army life before him or behind



him, his military future meant much to Sheridan. For that future he neither fretted nor strived. It would come in its own time and manner. Fortune, however, was still waiting upon him. Grant, as general-in-chief, had decided to take the field with the eastern army, and, after conferring with Meade, happened to mention to Halleck that he needed a new cavalry commander for the Army of the Potomac. Halleck instantly proposed Sheridan, and Grant as instantly accepted the suggestion. So Sheridan was ordered east and restored to the cavalry service. His position was a trying one, for the cavalry corps had good division commanders from whom a choice might have been made, and it resented the intrusion of a stranger. But the stranger was tactful and modest, as well as companionable, and he and the corps were soon on the best of terms. He followed Napoleon's habit of deeming nothing too good for his men and animals in time of repose, of never worrying or wearying them for small results, and of keeping them in hand and condition for great exertion when great exertion should be needed. His administrative and tactical methods became the models for modern cavalry practice, and have greatly increased the importance and efficiency of that arm in warfare.

At the opening of the campaign against Lee, in May, 1864, the cavalry, for a few days, kept in close touch with the infantry. But Stuart showed such a desire to get at Grant's well-laden supply and ammunition trains that, to draw him away, Sheridan made a straight and independent cut for Richmond, entering the outer defenses and making a short stay there, to give a serious look to the operation. Then he fought his way back to the Army of the Potomac, in good condition, after an absence of eighteen days. Stuart had been mortally wounded in front of Richmond. In twelve days, Sheridan was out on the road again, cutting Lee's railway communications. When he came back from this second raid, he had twice proved two propositions that now constitute part of the art of war—that cavalry, supported by horse artillery, can defend itself against infantry, and that a protracted raid can be maintained without breaking down the horses or wearing out the men.

Grant settled down to a protracted siege of Petersburg, and the cavalry, though busy, ceased for a time to be conspicuous. But fortune was still standing by Sheridan. Lee had sent Early, a very enterprising general, into the Shenandoah Valley, to keep Washington in a state of alarm and to gather supplies from that prolific region. Grant, who had foreseen that this valley route to Washington would be a danger trail, had sought before the campaign opened to create an important command there for McClellan, but the authorities would not have McClellan restored to active service. Now he proposed



Meade, with Hancock to command the Army of the Potomac under his own direction, but both propositions were negatived at Washington. Then he proposed Sheridan, who was deemed too young, but Halleck, as military adviser, smoothed the way for his young friend by the device of a "temporary" assignment. Taking counsel of Grant, Halleck and himself, the temporary commander of the new Army of the Shenandoah, who felt himself as though walking on a glass skylight, began his operations with extreme caution and excited the derision of his foe. But in a few days Early gave him an opening near Winchester, and Sheridan struck a stunning blow. In three days he was up with Early again at Fisher's Hill, and struck as hard as before. In these two battles, Sheridan fought his infantry as he had fought it at Perryville, Murfreesboro and Missionary Ridge, and as to his numerous and well-equipped cavalry, Early wrote to Lee that he had nothing fit to oppose it. Lee had only sympathy for Early in his misfortunes, and reinforced him for another fight, though unable to relieve him from the enterprising cavalry operations that were forcing Early out of the valley.

On the morning of October 19, 1864, while Sheridan was at Winchester, on his return from a conference at Washington, Early suddenly attacked the left of the Union army at Cedar Creek, some twenty miles away. The Union right was the supposed danger point, and the attack at the left was a clean surprise, many of the troops being taken while asleep. When Sheridan reached the front, he found his broken forces four miles from their lost camp, much scattered and greatly weakened from loss of prisoners and stragglers. Knowing that Early would be upon them again as soon as he could, get his men away from the plunder of the camp, Sheridan spent a precious two hours in rearranging his forces, getting the stragglers back to their commands, and forming a new line. When all was ready, he rode along the whole front, with his head uncovered, to let his men know that he was with them again. By this time the enemy was coming on, and Sheridan hastened to the rear center, to direct the defense. The attack was repulsed and Early drew off for the day. But as there were still five hours of daylight, Sheridan spent two of them in forming columns of assault; he then advanced upon Early and inflicted upon him such a decisive and disastrous defeat that the war in the Valley seemed over forever. On a smaller scale, Cedar Creek was Austerlitz over again, and for the time being all reputations were eclipsed by that of Sheridan. In glowing words, addressed to all the armies, summing up Sheridan's conduct, President Lincoln bestowed upon him the glittering prize of a major-generalship in the regular army. Moving out from the Valley to rejoin Grant, at the end of

February, 1865, Sheridan found the resolute Early again in his front at Waynesboro. It was an unequal fight, and ended in the complete and final overthrow of the gallant Confederate, who lost nearly everything but honor.

At Five Forks, on April 1, 1865, Sheridan, with a combined cavalry and infantry force, made a successful assault on a part of Lee's works, in which he captured the fortifications and many prisoners. This prevented the southward escape of the Confederate army, and so opened the way for the operations which compelled its surrender a few days afterward. During the flight of Lee's army from Petersburg and Richmond to Appomattox, Sheridan, with his splendid body of horse, was tireless in his efforts to bring to bay the fugitive Confederates. He marched by night and by day, striking quick, hard blows, in front and flank, capturing men, guns, wagons and supplies, and retarding the retreat of the hostile army until Grant's masses of infantry could arrive and finish the work. This closed the brilliant list of Sheridan's battles. At the death of General Sherman, Sheridan succeeded to the command of the United States army and died in 1888, at the age of fifty-seven. During his mortal illness, Congress fittingly raised him to the full grade of general.





## WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN

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*He led an army "from Atlanta to the sea."*

THE little army before the Civil War contained two Shermans, distinguished as "Tecumseh" and "Tim," of whom the former eventually became the hero of the "March to the Sea," and the latter the commander of the successful expedition to the South Carolina coast, in the early part of the war. So long as "Tim" was on the stage, the other Sherman remained "Tecumseh."



His middle name—that of a famous Indian chief and warrior—seemed to strike the ear of the army and of the public as suggestive of valorous deeds. Some latter-day chroniclers of the war quote "Uncle Billy" as the familiar name of the great Sherman among his soldiers, but he was as often called by them, "Old Tecump." Not that he was old in fact, for he was not yet forty-five at the time of the march through Georgia, yet that seemed a venerable age to the great body of the men in the ranks.

Sherman had graduated from the Military Academy at the age of twenty, in time to see a little service in the Seminole War. During the Mexican War, he served as adjutant-general of the forces in California, and made quite a mark for ability in that office. He married into a cabinet family, which had influence with the administration, and was able to get out of the idle life of the artillery into a captaincy in the staff department of the army. This he resigned in 1853, to become manager of the San Francisco branch of a New York banking house. The branch did well, but the parent house went down in the great panic of 1857, and in 1858, Sherman, who had done some leisurely studying of law, removed to Leavenworth, Kansas, and began legal practice. He did not prosper, and, two years later, he made a welcome change to the superintendency of the Louisiana Military Academy. This position was dignified and agreeable, if not lucrative, and, at the mature age of forty, Sherman was rejoiced to find himself anchored in a pleasant harbor, after so much buffeting during seven years of civil life. He was fond of society and well qualified for it, and became a welcome guest at the house of the planter aristocracy.

Louisiana was an early seceder after South Carolina, but secession was as yet generally regarded as an extreme resort to force a compromise within the lines of the Union. Sherman held on, and his holding on was made easy by considerate treatment from the state officials and other influential people. They did not ask or expect him to remain with them if matters came to the worst, but they wished to keep him so long as there was a chance of matters coming out well. When that hope was gone, Sherman left for the North, with the good wishes of those whom he was leaving, and they had his own in return.

As soon as volunteers were called for, Sherman had offers of command, but he chose to wait for an opportunity for restoration to the regular army, having had enough of civil life. His standing and reputation, and the influence of his brother, Senator John Sherman, obtained him the rank of colonel in the regular establishment, as soon as it was enlarged. Meanwhile, he found temporary employment as superintendent of a street railway at St. Louis, where he was a civilian spectator of some of the opening scenes of the war.

Colonel Sherman was put in command of a brigade at Washington, composed of four volunteer regiments, three from New York and one from Wisconsin. This brigade he led in the first battle of Bull Run, and, when the rout came, he kept his troops well together and did much to check the panic that prevailed. He was then created a brigadier-general, and, on the application of General Robert Anderson, of Fort Sumter fame, who commanded in Kentucky, he was sent to that state. Ill health compelled Anderson to retire, and Sherman took his place. At Louisville, his headquarters, he was visited by Secretary Cameron, then on a tour of observation. The Secretary was pleased with Sherman's intelligent grasp of the problems of the war, and was entertained by his racy style of conversation, but when Sherman told him seriously that it would take sixty thousand men to hold Kentucky against the Confederacy, and that at least two hundred thousand would be needed to conquer Tennessee and open the lower Mississippi, the bright man's sanity was doubted. Secretary Cameron, upon his return to Washington, declared that Sherman was crazy. He was, in consequence, removed from command and sent to the safe duty of supervising a camp of instruction at St. Louis, where, at least, he could do no harm. Halleck was there, as commander-in-chief in the West, and, seeing nothing insane in Sherman's estimates, and finding him otherwise a very capable officer, made him commander of a new division and attached him to Grant's army.

After the capture of Fort Donelson and Fort Henry, Grant's army assembled on the west side of the Tennessee River, near Pittsburg





Landing, about thirty miles from Corinth, Mississippi, awaiting the arrival of Buell's army from Middle Tennessee, for a joint movement against Corinth, under the personal command of Halleck. The intimacy, both personal and military, between Grant and Sherman, so fortunate in its results, began at once and was never broken until death severed the ties that so firmly bound them together. Grant esteemed Sherman the ablest of his subordinates, conferred chiefly with him, and left him in general charge of the camp during his absence at Savannah, some miles down the river, where Buell's arrival was daily expected. Grant and Sherman were both of the opinion that the enemy at Corinth would not take the offensive; and in their fancied security, they neglected some of the precautions that prudence should have suggested to guard against surprise. There was plenty of time for the army to have intrenched its position, but scarcely anything was done to thus protect its front and flanks from possible attack.

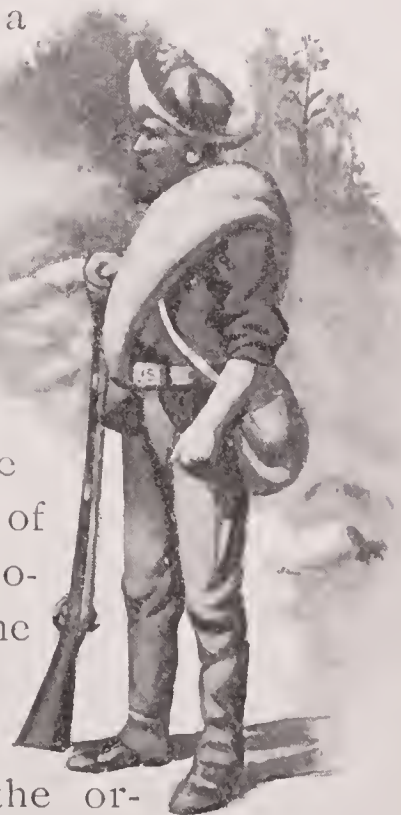
The surprise came at daylight on a Sunday morning in early April, 1862, by the descent of the Confederate army from Corinth upon the unsuspecting camp. Its effect was partially broken by the resistance of the division next in line to Sherman's, whose commander, Prentiss, had been uneasy, in consequence of Confederate reconnoitering for two or three days, and had quietly made some modest arrangements of his own to provide against being taken unawares. This resistance delayed the general Confederate advance and gave timely alarm to the rest of the army, encamped behind Sherman and Prentiss. Though the unity of the Federal army was broken, its detached fighting was stubborn and favored by the ground fought over. Grant and Sherman did their utmost to repair the well-nigh fatal consequences of their error; while time was lost to the Confederates, first by the scattering of the soldiers to plunder the captured camps, and afterward by the death of their commander, Albert Sidney Johnston, who was killed in the afternoon. The battle was undecided when darkness silenced the first day's conflict, by which time the leading brigade of Buell's column was already in line. The next morning, Grant had his reorganized troops well in hand, and, strengthened by reinforcements from Buell's army, drove the enemy from the field. The mishap of the first day at Shiloh bound Grant and Sherman strongly together, and they were fortunate enough not to go down under it. Soon afterward, indeed, Grant was able, with assistance at Washington, to obtain Sherman's promotion to the grade of major-general. In the campaign against Corinth, Halleck seemed to have recovered his shaken confidence in both.

In December, 1862, Grant projected a campaign against Vicksburg, in which Sherman was designed for an important part. But the Confederates destroyed Grant's depot of supplies at Holly Springs and spoiled the movement. He did not give up, however, until Sherman had tried a determined assault on the outworks of Vicksburg at Chickasaw Bluffs, and had been decisively repulsed with heavy loss. The two friends and brother soldiers were under some stress at that time.

In the autumn of 1863, Grant was raised to the chief command in the West, and Sherman succeeded to the command of the Army of the Tennessee. Under Grant, he participated in the crushing defeat of Bragg at Missionary Ridge and Lookout Mountain. Then he marched to Knoxville to relieve Burnside from his investment by Longstreet. In the spring of 1864, he succeeded Grant as commander of the western military division.

Johnston wintered at Dalton, twenty miles south of Chattanooga, and when Sherman, with a hundred thousand men, was ready to move against him, he had about half Sherman's strength in men and guns, and was limited thereby to a defensive campaign. This Sherman understood, and both armies were admirably maneuvered. The ultimate Federal objective point was Atlanta, one hundred and forty miles south of Chattanooga, beyond which Johnston could not go without a total failure of his defensive policy. There was continual skirmishing and much hard fighting between parts of the hostile armies, caused by Sherman's efforts to advance and Johnston's desire to retard him; also by Sherman's constant search for a favorable opening. It was seven weeks before Sherman attempted a general engagement, as at Kennesaw Mountain, where he was beaten off and Johnston was enabled to resume his retreat.

How matters would have turned out at Atlanta can never be known, for before the intended battle occurred, Johnston was suddenly relieved of his command. Bragg, at Richmond, had recommended to him an offensive campaign to be conducted in Tennessee, and the Confederate President had been on the side of Bragg. The campaign of retreat had proved very unpopular with the Southern people, whose views were supported by the opinions of some of Johnston's own subordinates. General Lee favored Johnston, but the opposing voice was too strong. Johnston was disliked by the authorities at Richmond and the order relieving him was couched in severe terms, and such as to leave his successor, Hood, no alternative but an immediate fight.





Within two weeks after he assumed command, General Hood, who was a gallant fighter, had three times assaulted with the utmost fury the well-ordered lines of Sherman. Both armies sustained large losses, with no advantage to either; the desperate efforts of Hood to pierce the Union line ended in utter failure. In the second of these engagements, usually called the battle of Atlanta, on July 22, fell Major-general James B. McPherson, one of Sherman's ablest lieutenants.

Then followed the siege of Atlanta. For six weeks Sherman closely invested the fortified city, making sure his position by forts, rifle-pits and other intrenchments of the strongest character. He did not for a moment relax his pressure upon the enemy, but no point was found that offered sufficient prospect of success to justify an assault. The confronting lines often blazed with musketry and artillery. During the last days of August, Sherman boldly cut loose from Atlanta, marched his army by a wide detour around the city, and completely destroyed for many miles the two railroads which were the Confederate lines of supply. This movement forced the evacuation of Atlanta by Hood, and, on the last day of September, Sherman was able to telegraph to Washington:—



“Atlanta is ours, and fairly won.”

After he had lost Atlanta, Hood withdrew his army thirty miles to the southwest. Here he was visited by Jefferson Davis, the Confederate President, and the plan was laid for a campaign into Tennessee. When Sherman heard of this he said: “If Hood will take his army into Tennessee, I will supply him with rations!” Sherman began at once to map out his “march to the sea.” Hood endeavored to draw Sherman out of Atlanta by assailing his communications, but the plucky Federal commander beat him off at every point of attack and held firmly to his capture. As soon as Hood's plan to march northward was clearly disclosed, Sherman detached two corps of his army, under General Thomas, to smite Hood, while he, with sixty thousand men, set his face toward the coast.

Leaving Atlanta a desolate and almost uninhabited ruin, Sherman telegraphed to Washington that his next address would be Savannah, and, cutting his northward communications, began that “Marching through Georgia” that has so possessed the popular imagination. In point of fact, he had calculated the march to be safe, easy and agreeable, and so it proved. He found the country, as he

expected, devoid of defense or offense, and supplies were abundant and varied. His army arrived in front of Savannah in high spirit and condition, after a leisurely march, and an easy conquest of the defenses put him in possession of the city. The object of the march had been to obtain a seacoast base of supply, from which to move northward through the Carolinas into Virginia, to the rear of Lee's army, then confronted by Grant at Richmond and Petersburg. Hood, he had left entirely to Thomas, who gained a decisive and destructive victory over him at Nashville, a few days before Sherman entered Savannah.

Sherman's march to the sea had an important political result. It proved to the North and to the South that the big Confederacy had become a hollow shell. In the face of impending ruin, Davis and Bragg abdicated the military command in favor of Lee. He, sorely tried, but faithful to the last, called on Johnston to come out from his enforced retirement and place himself in front of Sherman. Johnston responded loyally, but the gallant army he had left in front of Atlanta had vanished under his successor, and there were neither troops nor prepared defenses for another strategic campaign. That, however, mattered little, since Grant alone brought Lee to a surrender, early in April, 1865. All that remained for Johnston was to lay down his arms, on the like generous terms, before his equally chivalrous opponent.

But the fugitive government of the Confederacy had taken shelter with Johnston's little army, and, aware of Sherman's enthusiastic temperament, its members sought to make him an agent for settling all the after relations of the war. Subject, therefore, to the approval of his principals, Sherman signed a convention with Johnston at Durham's Station, North Carolina, April 18, 1865, which, if approved, would have averted the whole dark record of reconstruction, though it would have opened a tremendous chapter of litigation on constitutional questions, for the Supreme Court to decide. Sherman's commanders did not think ill of the proposed settlement; not even Logan, the fiery politician of them all. By some of his far-seeing subordinates, regret was expressed for the mistaken assumption of authority by the too generous Sherman, who had not reckoned with public temper at the North, influenced by the recent assassination of Lincoln and exultant over the complete subjugation of the rebellion.

The storm burst instantly. Lincoln's Cabinet, under Andrew Johnson, the new President, further incited public feeling by a dramatic statement given to the press, pointing out that Sherman's convention was an abject surrender of the North to the South. They also made public a dispatch, in Lincoln's own handwriting, to General Grant, in answer to a proposal by Lee, as general of the Confederate armies, in



March, 1865, for a convention to arrange terms of settlement of the "controversy." In that telegram, the lately martyred President had written for the signature of the Secretary of War:—

"The President directs me to say to you that he wishes you to have no conference with General Lee, unless it be for the capitulation of Lee's army, or on solely minor and purely military matters. He instructs me to say that you are not to decide, discuss or confer upon any political question; such questions the President holds in his own hands, and will submit them to no military conferences or conventions."

This reproving voice from the scarcely closed grave, banished the last vestige of public sanity. Erroneously assuming that Sherman knew of the telegram, the populace denounced Sherman as a traitor to Lincoln's memory and Lincoln's country, and called frantically for his head. Amid all the frenzy, there were two cool men, Sherman, himself,—who was already on record to the effect that what was called "the public" was too often a mob that "needed to be shaken by the collar instead of being coddled,"—and Grant, who told everybody that Sherman was all right and would loyally retrieve his error of judgment.

Grant was ordered to go to North Carolina at once and relieve Sherman of the command. To show that he was not a party to the crusade against Sherman, he made his arrangements for departure with deliberation, and even the impetuous Secretary Stanton could not hurry him. Grant was secure in the public confidence and resolved that Sherman should not unjustly suffer. When he reached Sherman's headquarters, in North Carolina, he kept in the background, so that Johnston's final surrender, under purely military arrangements, should be to Sherman, who had fairly earned the right to receive it. A few weeks after the North had rung with denunciations of Sherman's so-called treason, he rode at the head of his troops in the grand review at Washington, a popular idol.

He lived more than a quarter of a century afterward, never out of the sunshine of public adulation, and a keen enjoyer of it. He was also a social favorite and very fond of social life. He liked to be remembered and appreciated, and was always ready with an entertaining after-dinner speech. He died in February, 1891, at New York, a month earlier than his old-time adversary and very dear friend, General Joseph E. Johnston, his antagonist from Chattanooga to Atlanta. Many a cordial hour they had spent together in the happy days of peace.

SLOCUM, HENRY WARREN.—(1827–1894.) An American soldier and politician, born in Delphi, N. Y. He graduated from West Point in 1852, and served for a time in the artillery, but began the practice of law. He served in the Civil War. He was wounded at the first battle of Bull Run, and afterwards became major-general of volunteers. He was at the second battle of Bull Run, Antietam, Chancellorsville, Fredericksburg, Gettysburg, and commanded the left wing of Sherman's army on the march to the sea. He was Democratic representative to Congress in 1868, 1870, and 1884. He was a commissioner on the Brooklyn Bridge.

SMITH, ANDREW JACKSON.—Born in Pennsylvania, 1815. An officer of the U. S. army, who rendered conspicuous service in the Civil War.

SMITH, CHARLES FERGUSON.—(1805–1862.) An American soldier, born in Philadelphia, Pa. He graduated from West Point in 1825. He had a distinguished career in the Mexican War. In 1861, he was brigadier-general of volunteers and served in Kentucky. His conduct at Forts Henry and Donelson was especially gallant. He was made major-general of volunteers in 1862. He died in Savannah.

SMITH, EDMUND KIRBY.—(1824–1893.) A celebrated Confederate general. He was born at St. Augustine, Fla. After his graduation from West Point in 1845, he was mathematical professor until 1852. He was major in 1861, but resigned his commission in May, and joined the Confederate army. He was lieutenant-general in 1862, and full general in 1864. He organized the Trans-Mississippi Department in 1863. His were the last forces to surrender. He was president of the Atlantic and Pacific Telegraph Company (1866–1868); chancellor of the University of Nashville (1870–1875); and professor of mathematics in the University of the South (1875–1893).

SMITH, WILLIAM FARRAR.—Born at St. Albans, Vt., 1824. An officer of the U. S. army, noted in the Civil War. He graduated from West Point in 1845 and was assistant in mathematics (1846–1848). In 1861 he was brigadier-general of volunteers, and in 1862, major-general. He led his division at South Mountain and Antietam. At Brown's Ferry in 1863, he saved the Army of the Cumberland by his strategy. He resigned in 1865 and became president of the International Telegraph Company. He was police commissioner of New York City in 1875, and later, president of that board.

SOLDIERS' HOMES.—Institutions maintained by the federal and state governments for the care of soldiers, honorably discharged from the service whose disability prevents them from earning a living. There



are in all about 23,500 of these. The largest is the Central Soldiers' Home, at Dayton, Ohio, which provides for 4,750 inmates. The largest state institution is at Quincy, Ill., which cares for 1,050.

SOULE, PIERRE.—(1802–1870.) A statesman and soldier, born in Castillon, France. He was compelled to leave France on account of an attack in his newspaper upon Charles X. He went to Hayti, thence to Baltimore (1826) and thence to New Orleans. He mastered English, studied law and was admitted to the bar. He was twice elected to the United States Senate. In 1853 he was minister to Spain. While there he engaged in a duel with Marquis de Tourgot, and crippled him. In 1855, he resigned and returned to New Orleans where he remained until the fall of the city in 1862. He was imprisoned in Fort Lafayette in New York harbor. Upon his release he went to the West Indies. Then he joined General Beauregard's staff and went to Richmond. In 1863, he was made a brigadier-general and undertook to raise a foreign legion. He failed in this and went to Hayti. After the war he returned to New Orleans.

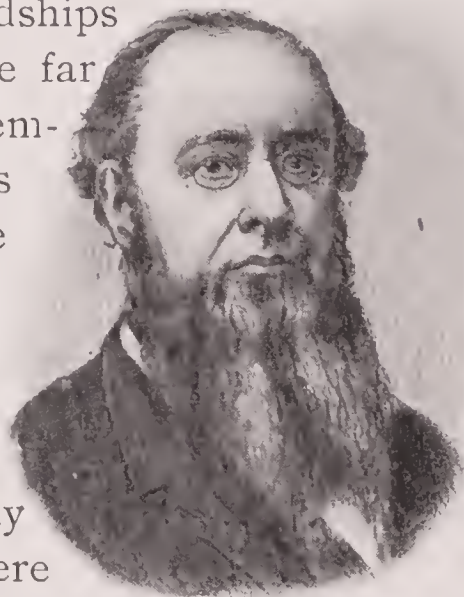
SPOTTSYLVANIA (Va.), BATTLE OF.—The second battle of Grant's Campaign against Lee, fought May 8–21. One of the most disastrous battles of the Civil War. When Grant attempted, after two days, fighting in the wilderness, to turn Lee's right flank and advance to Richmond by way of Spottsylvania Court House, several battles resulted. Lee anticipated Grant's intention, and reached Spottsylvania first. Grant had his army concentrated near there by May 9, 1864. Hancock commanded the right, Sedgwick the left, and Warren the center. Sedgwick was killed on the 9th, while placing his artillery and was succeeded by Wright. Preliminary fighting for position was kept up on the 10th and 11th. On the 10th Grant lost 10,000 men and Lee's losses were also severe. Hancock led the advance on the morning of the 12th, and captured General Edward Johnson's force of 3,000 Confederates, two generals, and over thirty guns. Lee made five furious attacks in quick succession to dislodge Hancock and Wright. The fighting lasted all day and the Federal attack was checked. Again on the 18th a Federal advance was attempted unsuccessfully. On the 20th and 21st Grant, with reinforcements, moved south toward the North Anna River. The Federal losses on these days were a total of 18,399 killed, wounded, and missing. The Confederate forces, only partially reported, were 4,001 killed and wounded. This battle was the occasion of Grant's famous message to the Secretary of War: "I propose to fight it out on this line, if it takes all summer."

## EDWIN McMASTERS STANTON

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*The great "war secretary" of Lincoln's Cabinet.*

"THE Carnot of the Rebellion," somebody aptly called Lincoln's great war secretary in his lifetime, and the catching phrase, and his portrait on the national currency, constantly remind us of one who in his day wielded a greater power than any other man in the United States, before or since his time. The Civil War, in which he played a great part, has not lost its interest; the friendships and the more numerous enmities which he inspired are far from forgotten. When we remember Lincoln, we remember, also, not only Chase and Seward, but the imperious Stanton, from whose flashing eyes and passionate voice all at the cabinet table, except Lincoln, were accustomed to recoil.



When Stanton was called into Lincoln's Cabinet, he was a supreme court lawyer of high reputation and practice; one who loved the law and found congeniality in his ample employment. His family attachments were strong and his domestic relations happy. He was fond of social life, and in the capital city had set up a home where, as a man of the law, of family, and of society, he might hope for many years of earthly content and all the distinction that his soul craved. The bitter struggle of his earlier years made doubly precious the success and pleasure that came to him rapidly in middle life.

After five years of public life, Stanton went back to his once happy private station, too broken in health to begin life's battle over again, yet so broken in fortune that to make the attempt was a necessity. In 1864 Lincoln had wished to make him chief-justice, a prize greater than would have been the presidency itself, but the war was not over, it was felt that he could not be spared, and when, five years later, a seat on the Supreme Bench came to him, he was on his deathbed. Such, in brief, is the tragic story, and the subject of it was not cut out for any but a tragic part. It was his own nature, rather than the hard demands of his position, that caused his sacrifice of life and fortune in the public cause.

Stanton was born in Ohio, December 19, 1814, and died at Washington in 1869, five days after his fifty-fifth birthday. In spite of



grinding poverty, he gained both a college and a legal education, giving for years an incredible number of hours habitually to study, and living on a diet that a pauper would have spurned. As it proved, this was good for the will and intellect, but bad for the temper and the heart. Having fought every step of his way to position, he became repellent, aggressive and arbitrary; a man always in armor, with lance couched for combat. Yet, in his days of unbridled power and arrogance, he had a remarkable tenderness for children, women and slaves, and any sight or tale of distress or suffering would bring tears to his eyes and a quiver to his lips. He had much compassion and charity, but compassion and charity went to those who were voiceless with the public.



Success in his profession drew Stanton from a country practice in Ohio to Pittsburg, where he made his home and found large employment. He also became prominent among leaders of the Democratic party in Pennsylvania. In 1851 he won for that commonwealth, before the supreme court, the great case against the Wheeling bridge across the Ohio River, erected under an act of the legislature of Virginia. After that his reputation as a lawyer was national, and, highly distinguished as the leaders of the supreme court bar were at that time, he henceforth took his place unchallenged among them. Under President Buchanan's administration, he was special counsel for the United States in the investigation of the many spurious and invalid Spanish and Mexican land grants in California, and preserved and reclaimed vast tracts to the government. He had strong convictions as to the sanctity of the marriage relation, and voluntarily took part in the defense of Daniel E. Sickles, on his trial for the killing of Philip Barton Key, in Washington, in 1859; and his vindication of the "higher law" for wronged husbands and fathers has become a legal classic.

In the last few weeks of his term, President Buchanan was obliged to reconstruct his Cabinet, to fill the places of those who had withdrawn by reason of the progress of secession. Stanton became attorney-general, and, at the Cabinet meetings, strenuously advocated the forcible nipping of the secession movement while it was still largely in the bud. The President, however, decided to let the new administration deal with the question of force, and when, afterward, the question came to force, there was a grateful recollection of the man who had been so far in advance of the mass of his countrymen in readiness to fight for the Union.

Lincoln took his first Secretary of War, Simon Cameron, from Pennsylvania, and, though they had been political opponents at home, Cameron and Stanton were soon on intimate and even confidential

terms. In Buchanan's Cabinet, Stanton had rested his policy of coercion on the constitutional duty of the President to meet by force the interference by a state with Federal authority. Accepting the attack on Fort Sumter as an act of flagrant war, he convinced Cameron of the constitutional power and duty of the President, as commander-in-chief, to take the slaves of those in rebellion, and to declare their freedom as a necessary and proper military measure, and to put them to such uses as might strengthen the military power of the government and weaken the enemy. Cameron did not stay long enough in the Cabinet to see such views prevail, but he did all he could to make the man that held them his successor, and the appointment seemed a very fit one, as Stanton was a typical war Democrat, and one of the confidants of McClellan, then the general-in-chief.

Stanton had just turned his forty-seventh year when he became Secretary of War, and as a lawyer, small and great, for a quarter of a century, he had been all in all to himself and by himself. In the days of his largest practice, his briefs and memoranda were written by his own hand. He had never learned to make use of others or to coöperate with them, and this it was that wore him out when called to the head of a military establishment, which grew in time to exceed that of Napoleon at the summit of his power. This it was that made him the stormy petrel of the Cabinet sessions; that led to the rupture with McClellan as soon as he had become clothed with the responsibilities of office; that led to his being the most hated man, North and South, that had ever been in public office.

Stanton brought to the War Office his lifelong habits of advocacy. As Secretary of War, he held a brief to crush the rebellion, and men, with their ambitions and feelings, were but as dust in the balance. His range of vision at any time was narrow, but it was intense; he was always at a white heat. He chafed under Lincoln's patient and easy-going ways, but for anybody but himself to think of Lincoln as less than absolute perfection in all he said and did, was rank disloyalty to the cause, worthy of the block. He could not send men to the block, but the power of arrest and imprisonment was his and he used it without mercy. As for the army, he had but one idea, that of the unselfish patriotism of the man in the ranks who had left his home and family to fight for the Union. He unjustly disparaged the major-general and unduly exalted the private and the drummer boy. The commanders in the field understood their dependence upon the trained and experienced chiefs of the staff department at Washington — professional soldiers, all, safe from the bullets of the enemy, but cut off from all prospect of fame and promotion. Stanton, too, learned his own dependence upon them, for the Department of War



could not be managed like a law office; but in moments of impatience or disappointment he took his revenge by calling them his epauleted clerks. This was all wrong, but the vagaries were at least those of a noble mind.

What Stanton contributed to the war for the Union was his unsparing energy, his stern integrity and his inflexible will. The Department was open and at work twenty-four hours a day while the war lasted, and as he kept no regular hours, himself, nobody else dared to be long absent. Great fortunes were made by fraudulent contractors, but in the departmental service all hands were clean. He was a poor judge of men and not a good judge of measures, but, nothing daunted by failure, and unappalled by popular clamor, he gripped the national resources and poured them like a flood upon the rebellion. He could do this because he reverently believed that God meant the republic to be saved, and that he was one of the chosen instruments to work out its salvation. McClellan, at Harrison's Landing, could telegraph him: "You have done your best to destroy this army"; but Grant, from the front of Petersburg, could write: "I have never made a request of the Secretary of War that has not been promptly met." Yet McClellan had been Stanton's military idol, and Grant, he had been long in accepting.

Stanton's attitude toward the Confederate leaders was not generous. Many of them had been his intimate friends and he freely admitted their personal integrity and merit. But from the very first he had denounced secession as sheer wickedness, a rebellion against Heaven itself, and when secession broadened into war he was implacable. He would have hanged every one of the leaders if he could have had his way, and then he would have shared his last crust with their widows and orphans. Against the followers he had no feeling but pity, and he befriended more than one family at Washington, whose menfolk had gone South to fight against the government.

STONEWALL BRIGADE.—The brigade in the Confederate army first commanded by "Stonewall" Jackson, before he passed to the command of a division. It retained its organization and name throughout the Civil War. (See JACKSON, THOMAS JONATHAN, 233.)

STREIGHT, ABEL D.—A noted U. S. Volunteer officer of the Civil War.

STREIGHT'S RAID.—An expedition (1863) in command of Col. Abel D. Streight, having for its object the destruction of the Confederate sources of supply in Alabama and Georgia. The force was defeated at Rome, Ga.

## JAMES EWELL BROWN STUART

*A famous cavalry fighter of the Civil War.*

GENERAL J. E. B. STUART was a dashing and usually successful cavalry leader in the Confederate army during the Civil War.

He was a Virginian, born in 1833. He graduated at West Point in 1854, and served against the Apache Indians in Kansas during the troubles in that state. After Virginia had seceded, Stuart resigned his commission in the United States army and was made a colonel of cavalry in the Confederate service. At the battle of Bull Run, he greatly contributed to the Confederate victory by efficiently guarding "Stonewall" Jackson's left flank and driving back an attacking force of the Federal army. After a number of successful raids, he was brevetted a brigadier-general.

When the Confederates retreated from Yorktown to Richmond, during McClellan's Peninsular campaign, in 1862, Stuart guarded the rear with great gallantry and efficiency. He made a circuit entirely around the Union army on the Chickahominy, for the purpose of disclosing the position of McClellan's right; and during the Seven Days' Battles before Richmond, he was incessantly engaged. His conspicuous services earned for him the brevet rank of major-general.

In August, 1862, Stuart crossed the Rappahannock, penetrated General John Pope's command at Catlett's Station, captured that officer's war correspondence and personal effects, and carried away as captives several of Pope's staff officers. During the short, sharp campaign, which resulted in the defeat of Pope, Stuart's tireless cavalry was on constant duty, winning high praise for its alertness, endurance and valor. When Lee invaded Maryland, Stuart led the advance, and at the battle of Antietam rendered important service in guarding an eminence on Jackson's left, which was essential to his security. A few weeks later, after Lee had withdrawn into Virginia, Stuart crossed the Potomac with eighteen hundred picked men and gained the rear of the national army, riding as far north as Mercersburg, and Chambersburg in Pennsylvania, recrossing the Potomac below Harper's Ferry.





When on one of his forays, of which Stuart was so fond, he gave evidence of his great fertility of resource. Dashing in the rear of the Union army, he cut the telegraph wires, attached his own instruments and sent forged dispatches to Washington, the answers to which gave him valuable information respecting the position and contemplated movements of the national troops. At another time, he effected the same purpose by capturing a telegraph office. At Chancellorsville, his cavalry screened "Stonewall" Jackson's march across the front of the national army. After Jackson had been mortally wounded and General Hill disabled, Stuart took Jackson's corps and directed it during the following day, leading two charges in person and carrying the ridge at Hazel Grove, which was the key to the field.

Stuart was sent forward to guard the flanks of the advancing column of Lee's army in the Gettysburg campaign, but was opposed and checked by the Union cavalry at Fleetwood Hill and Stevensburg, with heavy losses on both sides. General Lee had directed him to cross the river in advance of the infantry and take a position to cover his right flank, but Stuart could not, or at least did not, obey this order. As the result, Lee was wholly deprived of his cavalry on the march into Pennsylvania and at the battle of Gettysburg, and suffered thereby excessive annoyance and embarrassment. Stuart held the pass in the Blue Ridge for a time, then passed around the rear of the national army, and rejoined Lee at the close of the conflict at Gettysburg. The responsibility for his erratic course at this critical time has been the subject of much controversy.

On the retreat from Gettysburg, Stuart guarded the gaps in the mountains, and during the remainder of the year 1863, his cavalry held the line of the Rappahannock. He evaded General Kilpatrick at Culpeper Court House; retired from General Buford at Jack's Shop; forced back the Union cavalry, under Pleasonton, at Brandy Station; and by a ruse routed General Davies, near Buckland.

After General Grant had crossed the Rapidan, in May, 1864, Stuart led the advance of Hill's corps of Lee's army. When General Sheridan, with his cavalry, dashed into the very suburbs of Richmond, Stuart, by a rapid march, interposed his force between Sheridan and the Union army. A fierce cavalry fight took place at Yellow Tavern, in which the Confederates were defeated. They suffered a far greater loss than that of the battle, in the death of General Stuart, who fell mortally wounded while striving to breast the adverse tide.

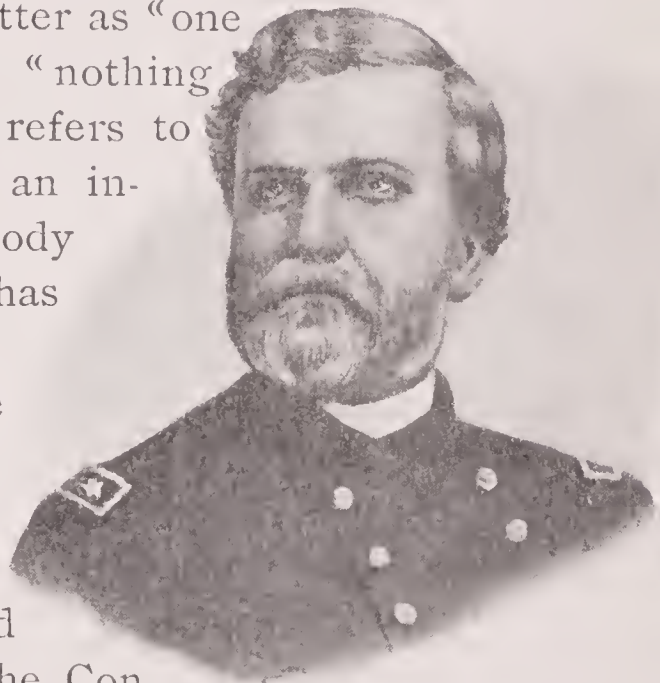
## GEORGE HENRY THOMAS

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*A shining example of unfaltering loyalty.*

HORACE GREELEY, carefully studying the military archives for his work entitled "The American Conflict," pronounced Thomas the greatest general on either side. His was not the opinion of a military expert, but it was, at least, intelligent and disinterested. Sherman, who rose higher than Thomas, speaks of the latter as "one of the grand characters of our Civil War" and as "nothing dismayed by danger in front or rear," and also refers to his "cool and calm deliberation." Sherman had an incisive judgment and a graphic utterance, and nobody could describe Thomas more accurately than he has done in the few words just quoted.

In one respect, Thomas stands almost alone among the leading generals of the Civil War—from beginning to end there is not a single act or circumstance to excuse, apologize for or explain away. Except for "Stonewall" Jackson, he would stand entirely alone, though "Joe" Johnston on the Confederate side and Sherman of the Federal army would be not far behind. The "grand character" of Thomas did not consist wholly of his character as a soldier, but included also his character as a man. In both respects it was massive, like his aspect, though there was nothing picturesque or salient about him. In his smaller field, he was a second and latter-day Washington, and had he come to the presidency he would have been very much such a President as Washington. To put it in another way, Washington, in the latter half of the nineteenth century, would have been much the same kind of man as Thomas. The resemblance is not strained; it is real, and can be verified by anybody who, from the abundant material at command, shall take the trouble to make the two men stand out as they truly were in the flesh. In history, poem and oration, Thomas is the "Rock of Chickamauga," but to this day the survivors of the Army of the Cumberland always speak of him as "Old Pap" Thomas. This is not strictly Washingtonian, yet it is not far from the "Uncle George," a familiarity current in Revolutionary camps.



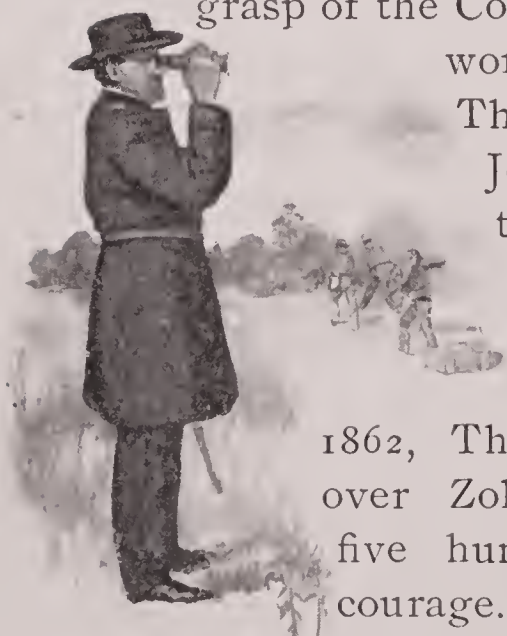


Thomas was by birth and rearing a Virginian, and in the old army was regarded, in the days when sectionalism was abroad in the land, as a pretty stiff Southern man. Born in 1816, he had reached the mature age of twenty-four when he was graduated from the Military Academy in 1840, and began, as a brevet second lieutenant of artillery, an army life that seemed likely to carry him not very far, as it could not carry him fast. Yet he was still under forty, when, in 1855, he was appointed a major in a new cavalry regiment raised for service in Texas, and owed his appointment to the facts that he had served handsomely in two wars and had been for four years one of the best instructors in tactics at West Point.

Major Thomas served nearly six years in Texas, but happened to be on leave of absence eastward when Twiggs surrendered the troops there to the secession authorities of that state. When his own state seceded, his kindred there took care that his merit and ability should not be forgotten, but when notified that a desirable military appointment was open for him under the Confederate flag, he declined to leave the service in which he was already engaged. Thomas had no political friends, but Scott, another loyal Virginian, looked out for him, and as soon as Congress had provided for the organization of a big volunteer army, he got one of the brigadierships. Before this, and prior to the first Bull Run campaign, he had a brisk and successful little affair in Virginia itself, with his old friend, Colonel Jackson, afterward the famous "Stonewall."

In the fall of 1861, the government at Washington was deeply interested in the project of rescuing loyal East Tennessee from the grasp of the Confederacy. Thomas was sent there and did yeoman's work in collecting, organizing and drilling volunteers. The brilliant and audacious strategy of Albert Sidney Johnston, in establishing the Confederate line in Kentucky, and threatening Louisville with forces that existed chiefly in Federal imagination, transferred the immediate seat of war to that state.

At Mill Spring, near Somerset, on January 19, 1862, Thomas gained a fruitful and impressive victory over Zollicoffer, handling his little force of about forty-five hundred men with consummate skill and resolute courage. General Zollicoffer was killed in the action. A general order from the War Department, graphically summing up the military qualities shown by Thomas, fixed all eyes upon him, and it was emphasized by his speedy promotion to the grade of major-general.



As a division commander in the Army of the Cumberland, he was engaged in Halleck's successful campaign against Corinth, and in the autumn of 1862 was back in Kentucky with Buell, in consequence of Bragg's unexpected leap from Alabama and Mississippi to the Ohio River. On the eve of battle, political intrigue at Washington caused the removal of Buell, who was commanding against Bragg, and the appointment of Thomas to succeed him. Against this Thomas protested, and Buell was left in command till Bragg should be driven southward. Then the doomed Buell was again removed, but Thomas was passed by and Rosecrans was brought from another field to take the command.

In the battle of Murfreesboro, the part taken by Thomas was a repetition of his conduct in the two Kentucky campaigns. Confusion reigned supreme in both armies, but in him was "no variable-ness, neither shadow of turning." He was, as Sherman said, "nothing dismayed by danger in front or rear," and if his "cool and calm deliberation" forbade him the spectacular role of a war-god, it was something, to be sure of finding in one part of an engaged army things always going steadily and going well. At Chickamauga, in September, 1863, Thomas had the center of the Federal line, and getting into position promptly, yet without confusing haste, he was able to repel the attacks which broke up the rest of the Federal army and sent its commander a fugitive to Chattanooga. His calm, deliberate and immovable resistance saved the campaign, and he was appointed commander of the army which he had preserved from overwhelming disaster.

From Chickamauga to the close of the Atlanta campaign, Thomas served under the personal direction, first of Grant and then of Sherman. But, in the late autumn of 1864, he was sent back to Nashville to take care of Hood,—who, after the loss of Atlanta, had launched his army northward into Tennessee,—while Sherman was executing his plan of moving through Georgia from Atlanta to Savannah. The Confederate army, from which Sherman had broken away, crossed the Tennessee River at Florence in November and moved northward as rapidly as the bad weather and almost impassable roads would permit. Thomas was at Nashville, collecting troops and supplies from all available sources. The Fourth and Twenty-third corps had been detached from Sherman's army and placed at the disposal of Thomas. They numbered less than twenty-five thousand men, but these were chiefly veteran soldiers and could be relied upon in any emergency. This force, under the immediate command of General Schofield, was charged with the duty of closely watching Hood and impeding his progress, to gain time for Thomas in his work of organization, but to avoid, if



possible, a general engagement. Hood's strength exceeded that of Schofield by fifteen thousand or more.

The Confederate commander hoped to interpose his army between Schofield's column and Nashville, and thus prevent the union of Schofield with Thomas. In his desperate effort to carry out this plan, he made a furious attack upon Schofield at Franklin, twenty miles south of Nashville, on November 30. Schofield was obliged to fight, in order to save his long train of wagons. While the battle was in progress, these were passed rapidly over the single bridge that spanned the Harpeth River at that place. Apprised of the approach of the enemy and of his purpose to attack, the Union soldiers had been able to greatly strengthen their position by throwing up intrenchments, and advantageously posting the artillery.

At four o'clock in the afternoon, Hood's assaulting column was hurled upon Schofield. The combat was not exceeded by any other during those four years of war, in fierce and bloody fighting. Its duration was scarcely more than two hours, but, in that brief time, above fourteen hundred Confederates were slain, including six general officers, and thrice that number were wounded or taken. The Union army was sheltered by its barricades, and its loss was but one-fourth as large as that of the enemy. The valor of the Confederates was equal to that of Pickett's division in its immortal charge at Gettysburg, but it was of no avail. Schofield held his position, and at night drew off his army and marched to Nashville. Hood followed closely and formed his line, partly enveloping the city, extending to the Cumberland River above and below it.

Two weeks the armies lay confronting each other at Nashville, while the whole country watched with an intensity of eagerness for the clash of arms. The issues at stake were tremendous; the situation was dramatic in the extreme. Sherman's army was four hundred miles away, in the heart of Georgia, marching to the sea. Thomas was between Hood and dire disaster to the Union cause. If Hood should win a decisive victory, there would be nothing at hand able to stay his advance to the Ohio River, and beyond. As the days grew into weeks, the impatience at Washington and throughout the North became excessive. The most positive orders were telegraphed by the Secretary of War and by General Grant at City Point, Virginia, pointing out the great risk and danger of delay, and directing Thomas to strike at once; Hood *must* be defeated, and that quickly.

Thomas, cool and unmoved, had a perfect comprehension of the situation and a perfect confidence in the result. Hood was strong in



cavalry, and Thomas would not fight with his own cavalry dismounted and inefficient. Nor would he fight what he believed would be a successful battle, until he could follow the enemy as fast as that enemy could retreat. He was growing stronger every day and needed but a few days to reach the desired point of readiness. But his confidence in the result nearly proved his ruin. The authorities at Washington determined to displace him by a commander who would fight. Thomas, working night and day, found time to repeatedly explain his situation, progress and confidence. His telegrams were cool, respectful, measured and unyielding, except that he intimated that he was ready to retire when Grant and the President had lost confidence in him. His behavior in this heated term was singularly like the calm, almost formal, demeanor of Washington and Wellington in their time of stress. At the very last, there was a delay caused by a heavy fall of sleet, which covered the ground with ice and made the movement of an army impossible. Schofield had been appointed by Grant to relieve Thomas, but the order was suspended before Thomas heard of it; Logan was privately on his way from Washington to Nashville to relieve Thomas, by order of Grant, if the battle should not have been fought, and at last Grant decided to go to Nashville himself. But on the morning of the fifteenth of December, the news was flashed that the battle was opened; darkness of the second day closed it. The pursuit continued through Tennessee to Alabama and then there was nothing left to pursue, and very little more to capture. Besides all his dead and wounded, Hood had left at Nashville forty-five hundred prisoners, fifty-three cannon, and many thousands of small arms.

The end of 1864 saw the end of the Confederate Army of Tennessee. If the Confederacy had a remote or feeble chance before the battle at Nashville, it had none afterward. If Grant used his anxiety as an excuse for his treatment of Thomas, the latter never admitted any reason for the anxiety. The two men had no personal friendship afterward, and when Grant became President and transferred his grade of general to Sherman, he gave Sherman's grade of lieutenant-general to Sheridan, passing over Thomas — whom Sherman would not have passed over.

Thomas died in service at San Francisco, in 1870, in his fifty-fourth year. Subsequently the survivors of the Army of the Cumberland erected a noble equestrian statue of him at Washington, thus preserving to posterity the lineaments of a man plain, simple and direct, but whose steadfast loyalty to his country and distinguished services under its flag, mark him as one of the grand characters of the nation.



WELLS, C. H.—(1822–1888.) An American naval officer, born in Pennsylvania. He graduated from Annapolis in 1846, and took part in the siege of Vera Cruz. In 1857 he was with the Atlantic Cable Expedition. He was with the South Atlantic Squadron in the Civil War, and, later, commander of the navy-yard at Philadelphia. He was at the battle of Mobile harbor and the surrender of the city. He rendered assistance to a French man-of-war off Spezzia in Italy and received the cross of the Legion of Honor from the French government. He retired as a rear-admiral in 1884.

WHEELER, JOSEPH.—An American soldier and statesman, born in 1836. He was a graduate from West Point in 1859 and served in the cavalry in New Mexico until 1861, when he resigned to enter the Confederate army as a lieutenant of artillery. He passed through several grades rapidly and, in 1862, was in command of the army corps of cavalry in the west, which position he held until the close of the war. The Confederate Congress, by joint resolution, gave him thanks for his military work, and the State of South Carolina tendered him thanks for his defense of Aiken. He became the senior cavalry general of the Confederate cavalry. He has served several times in Congress.

WILSON'S CREEK, BATTLE OF.—Aug. 10, 1861, between the Confederates under McCulloch and Price and the Federals under Lyon. The Confederates had 20,000 troops and advanced in two columns. General Lyon had 5,500 men. During the night of August 9, Sigel was sent with 1,500 men to attack the rear while Lyon attacked the front. Both attacks failed, and Sigel lost five of his six guns and over half his men. General Lyon was killed.

WINCHESTER, BATTLE OF.—(1) A Federal victory under Shields, over the Confederates under Jackson, near Winchester, Va., March 23, 1862. (2) A Confederate victory under Early, over the Federals under Crook, July 24, 1864. (3) A Federal victory under Sheridan, over the Confederates under Early, Sept. 19, 1864.

## JOHN ANCRUM WINSLOW

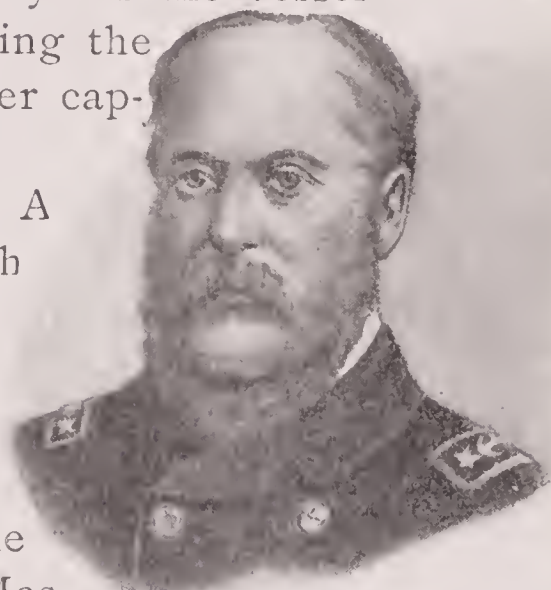
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*He sent the "Alabama" to the bottom of the sea.*

"SINK, burn and destroy everything which flies the ensign of the so-called United States," were the words of Jefferson Davis, in his commission to Captain Raphael Semmes to take command of the Confederate commerce destroyer "Alabama," destined to become "the scourge of the seas." For nearly two years the vessel continued her career of destruction, successfully eluding the most diligent pursuit and the best-laid plans for her capture.

But the "Alabama's" course was to be ended. A naval officer whose birthplace was Wilmington, North Carolina, was destined to prove more than a match for Admiral Semmes. That officer was Captain John A. Winslow. His mother was a member of the celebrated Rhett family of Charleston, South Carolina, some of whom were then in the service of the Confederate States. His father, though born in Massachusetts, had founded the Charleston house of John Winslow and Company. When the war of 1861 began, young Winslow was in the service of his government and remained loyal thereto, despite the efforts to induce him to "follow his state." He served with credit in the navy, and in 1864 was in command of the wooden corvette "Kearsarge," with the rank of captain. He was ordered to the English and French coasts to watch for the "Alabama," then known to be in that part of the Atlantic waters. The "Kearsarge" was at Flushing, Holland, when a telegram sent by Minister Dayton, at Paris, gave Captain Winslow warning that the "Alabama" was in the harbor of Cherbourg, France, where she had put in for coal and repairs.

The "Kearsarge" immediately put to sea, and entered the harbor of Cherbourg, two days later. Through the consular agent, Captain Semmes sent a challenge to Captain Winslow, stating that he would at once fight the "Kearsarge" on the high seas, outside of the international three-mile limit. Semmes was more brave than wise. Winslow accepted the challenge, and on Sunday, June 10, about half-past ten o'clock in the forenoon, he saw the defiant ensign of the "Alabama" as she came out of the western entrance, accompanied by the





French ironclad steamer "Couronne" and the English yacht "Deerhound." The "Couronne," after seeing the combatants outside of French waters, retired into port. The "Kearsarge" was about three miles from the entrance of the harbor, and to be certain that none of his movements might take place in French waters, as well as to draw the "Alabama" so far off that, if disabled, she could not escape to the shore for protection, Captain Winslow moved out about seven miles, followed by the "Alabama." At eleven o'clock the "Kearsarge" turned about and approached her adversary, and the latter promptly opened fire. The "Kearsarge" made no reply at once, but ranged nearer, apparently to run down the "Alabama," but really to get a position directly astern and "rake" her. Semmes slowed his engine and presented his starboard battery to the "Kearsarge." Both vessels then began to circle around a common center, and Winslow, keeping under full speed, fired his first shot at the distance of half a mile. He delivered an effective broadside, then wheeled the "Kearsarge" and discharged the other, while the shot and the shell of the "Alabama" passed over the "Kearsarge" without damage.

At the distance of a mile, the 11-inch guns of the "Kearsarge" made gaps in the hull of the "Alabama." The latter sent a 100-pound shell through the bulwarks of the "Kearsarge," which burst with a terrific explosion. The "Kearsarge," in return, disabled a gun of the "Alabama" by a shot which killed and wounded eighteen men. A shell exploded in the bunkers of the "Alabama" and wrecked the engine room. At length the "Alabama" turned her head to the shore, followed by the "Kearsarge," pouring in a furious fire, until the flag of the "Alabama" came down and a white one was displayed. Shortly afterward, the boats of the "Alabama" were lowered, and an officer in one of them came alongside the "Kearsarge" and announced that the "Alabama" had surrendered and was fast sinking; in a few minutes the "Alabama" went to the bottom.

There was great rejoicing over the death of the "Alabama." Captain Winslow was promoted to a commodore, and words of praise for his gallantry were upon every tongue. He rose to the rank of rear-admiral in 1870, and commanded the Pacific squadron until his death in 1873.

After the war, the United States secured from the English government an award of fifteen million dollars to pay what were known as the "Alabama claims." This amount was distributed to the merchants and ship-owners of the United States whose goods and vessels had been destroyed by the "Alabama." The liability of England was based upon an alleged violation of the neutrality laws, in permitting the vessel to be built and fitted for sea in a British port.

## FROM CIVIL WAR TO PRESENT DAY

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PRESIDENT JOHNSON AND CONGRESS—SLAVERY PROHIBITED BY CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT—GRANT'S TWO ADMINISTRATIONS—FINANCIAL LEGISLATION UNDER HAYES—CLEVELAND THE FIRST DEMOCRATIC PRESIDENT IN A QUARTER OF A CENTURY—THE WILSON TARIFF BILL—MCKINLEY'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION AND THE DINGLEY TARIFF BILL—THE CUBAN WAR—MCKINLEY'S SECOND ELECTION—THE MONEY QUESTION IN POLITICS—HAMILTON'S TARIFF AIDS CENTRALIZATION—JEFFERSON'S TARIFF VIEWS MAY YET PREVAIL.

ANDREW JOHNSON, succeeding to the presidency, retained Lincoln's Cabinet, and adopted his policy of restoration. He was opposed, as Lincoln, to the day of his death, had been opposed, by those Republican leaders who held that Congress must prescribe the terms of readmission to the Union of the insurgent states, which they contended were in the legal condition of territories, their state governments having perished by going into unsuccessful rebellion. Johnson had about six months before the regular meeting of Congress in which to put Lincoln's plan in operation. In each lately insurgent state he appointed a Loyalist to be the provisional governor, through whom the machinery of state government was to be reconstituted. The Federal offices in the judicial, revenue, land, and postal, departments he, of course, filled by his own appointments, from Unionists who could take the stringent, ironclad oath of loyalty prescribed in 1862 for all holding office under the United States.

When Congress met in December, 1865, Johnson had precisely the same trouble on his hands that Lincoln would have had if he had lived, but he did not, and could not, meet it in the same way. He had not Lincoln's standing with the country, nor his influence with leading men, and instead of being patient, tactful, conciliatory, and amiable, as was Lincoln, he was impulsive, rash, violent, and stubborn. Having done, to the best of his ability, exactly as Lincoln would have done, and knowing that the men who were attacking him for doing Lincoln's own work were professing to regard Lincoln as so great, and good, and wise, as to be above human praise or censure, he felt an indignation that was truly honest, and what he felt he spoke in words that Lincoln would not have used toward a coördinate branch of government. As Lincoln's admittedly faithful substitute, Johnson had a stronger hold on popular feeling in the earlier days of the controversy than had the Radicals in Congress, and if he had been prudent, he might have had his way almost as far as Lincoln could have had his, for Lincoln sometimes had to yield to Congress, and usually



did so gracefully. Johnson's own disposition had been to deal harshly with rebellion and insurgents, and it wounded him to see how little his surrender of his own feeling to the policy of Lincoln was appreciated by the prominent Republican leaders. As his quarrel with Congress deepened, three of the Cabinet withdrew, but Seward, Stanton, Welles, and McCulloch, adhered to him.

The crisis came over the situation of the freedmen, who had liberty without protection, and it became evident, from fast-gathering experience, that if they were left merely free, both their life and liberty would be very insecure. They had, through freedom, reached the stage where a negro had no rights that a white man was bound to respect. The restored state governments could not, if they would, do anything for them, and their hapless state appealed strongly to the power that had freed them. As the best of the several plans proposed, Congress decided to make the freedmen citizens and voters of their respective states, to cancel the state governments restored under the Lincoln policy, and to reconstruct those governments under conditions that would ensure the negro all of the rights and the protection that just laws could give to him. During the process of reconstruction, the lately insurgent states were to constitute military districts, and to be administered by army officers, under martial law. It was a harsh measure, but the government could not leave the emancipated blacks in the state of outcasts and outlaws, which they practically were, and the Republican leaders argued that the reconstruction measure would be better than to keep the whole South under martial law for at least twenty years, and possibly a good deal longer. Johnson fought, and thwarted, the reconstruction laws so far as he could, and the Southern people resented them bitterly; but the people of the North, while not relishing the necessity, stood by Congress and reconstruction was carried through.

Reconstruction was not bad in intention, but it was badly worked. By disfranchising those who had been prominent in rebellion, the South was deprived of its natural leaders and of the very influences that make for good government. By enfranchising the negroes, the latter were armed with a power that they could not intelligently use, and that was sure to become massed in the hands of demagogues or plunderers. Politicians from the North, called "Carpetbaggers," swarmed in to plunder the already grievously damaged South. Native recreants, called "Scalawags," turned traitor to their own people, in order to share in the rapine. Worst of all, the Republican leaders, seeing their party losing ground in the North, through dissatisfaction with its extravagant and corrupt administration, seized upon the reconstruction measures to convert the South into Republican

states, where, sure of the votes of carpetbaggers, scalawags, and freedmen, they could obtain a majority that would enable them to retain power, and to ignore public opinion at the North. Thus, reconstruction, originally a matter of two years at the furthest, was protracted into ten, and was then abandoned because Northern feeling had become inflamed about it; and even the "Tribune," the organ of republicanism, demanded that the curtain should be rung down on a scene that was disgracing civilization. The toleration that the highest Republicans accorded to this perversion of reconstruction, so long as it helped the "Grand Old Party," proves that all reform must come from outside the circle of active politics. The disfranchised and plundered Southern whites were not tame, but with bull-whip, revolver, shotgun, and midnight raids, retaliated upon their negro masters, whom they terrified and slaughtered beyond the power of carpetbagger or scalawag to aid; and as the new state governments were mere houses of cards, the army of the United States was incessantly employed to sustain them and to suppress the newly insurgent whites. Carpetbaggers sat in the Federal Senate, and House of Representatives, for states whose geography they could not describe, and in which they had never owned a dollar obtained otherwise than by corruption or looting. Reconstruction, as worked for partisan ends, is one of the blackest chapters in our political history.

The quarrel over reconstruction led to the impeachment of Johnson for high crimes and misdemeanors. That he had behaved badly in many things, politically speaking, was true, and that he had become badly surrounded and advised was true; but two or three Republican senators refused to vote for conviction,—thereby making a permanent record of the fact that an honest but foolish man had, while holding the office of President of the United States, been guilty of high crimes and misdemeanors,—and the radicals being, therefore, unable to obtain a two-thirds vote, the impeachment happily failed. Johnson took the advice of some who had served him, and during the short remainder of his term, treated Congress with outward respect. When he retired from office he had such men of rank as Seward and Evarts in his cabinet, so that his administration could not have been as black as painted.

For the succession to Johnson, the Democrats nominated Horatio Seymour, of New York, and the Republicans nominated General Grant, who had been very loyal and helpful to Congress in the reconstruction struggle, but who by being drawn into politics, had already lost some of the original simplicity and openness of his character.

Despite the candidacy of Grant, the Democrats had a fair chance of winning; but their candidate for Vice-president, one of Sherman's



popular generals, proposed that if the Democrats came to power they should use the army to undo its carpetbag work in the Southern states. This threat of throwing matters back to their beginning proved as unpalatable as the Democratic platform of 1864, which proposed to stop the war and to go back to negotiations; and as that platform foredoomed McClellan to defeat, despite his attractive candidacy, so this later proposal was immediately fatal to Seymour, though a strong candidate. The century-old history of the parties, developed from the foundations of Jefferson and Hamilton, is one more example of how the virtues distribute themselves. The Federalists, National-Republicans, Whigs, and Republicans, successively, have had more of the capacity, and the Republicans, Democratic-Republicans, and Democrats, successively, more of the honesty, and of fidelity to the masses. If capacity for government could always have been joined to honesty and fidelity, the political history of the United States during the nineteenth century would read differently. Sir Robert Walpole defended his own jobbing, but successful, administration of many years by laying it down, as an axiom, that one could not have parliamentary government without corruption; and Hamilton, the most successful of American statesmen of the first rank, who knew his Walpole by heart, accepted the axiom frankly and never shrank from its consequences, though he, like Walpole, was personally incorruptible.

Grant, without experience or aptitude in politics, was disposed to treat the presidency as a little token of esteem for his military services, and to bestow its good things in a way that would give him pleasure. But the good things were the motive power of politics, and he was not long in learning that public office is a party trust. Honest, truthful, and unselfish himself, he attributed those qualities to all whom he fancied, and therefore favored, but a great many of these he fancied and favored possessed traits that were the opposites of honesty, unselfishness, and truthfulness. Though very tenacious of his own opinion, his ignorance of practical politics compelled him to trust in a great many people who did not serve him with the fidelity that characterized the service of his brigade, division, and staff officers, in army days. Jobbery and corruption abounded throughout his administration, yet Grant did not personally suffer in public esteem; for the evils done under his cloak were attributed to his inexperience, and it was easily seen that he meant to be right, and that sometimes he was right, under pressure that would have moved an ordinary president to be knowingly wrong. He took Hamilton Fish of New York for his Secretary of State, and in the main sustained him loyally, so that the foreign affairs of the country, upon the

whole, were conducted with dignity and uprightness as well as with success. Grant was a lover of peace and concord, and by treaties and arbitrations, settled amicably the whole lot of grave and irritating controversies with England and, even great popular feeling at times, preserved neutrality in the Cuban insurrection against Spain. The San Domingo annexation job was hardly a foreign affair, being a corrupt scheme worked up between a native adventurer and some people very near to Grant, to whom he had the right to look for fidelity, though the abstention of his Secretary of State ought to have made him suspicious of it. Grant, personally, did all that he could for sound money, for the maintenance of the pecuniary faith and credit of the government, and to establish a merit system in the civil service, and it was only because public life had become so tainted by the corrupting influences of a long war, and by the armed peace of reconstruction, that he was almost isolated in any important attempt to conduct affairs honestly, and that, in almost everything not immediately under his own eye, there was rottenness and plundering. In 1872, he was reëlected; Horace Greeley, had been nominated by discontented Republicans, and indorsed by the Democratic national convention, and Grant's success was due to the weakness of the candidacy of so eccentric a man as Greeley, and to a feeling that Grant, despite the bad record of his administration, was the safer man. The corruptions and jobberies of the second administration were greater than those of the first, partly due to Grant's habit of never listening to an imputation against anybody he liked or had trusted, so that as president he was as much a dupe to a multitude as he was, years afterward, to the glib young Wall Street swindler who dragged his name in the mire. The eight years of Grant's presidency were the most scandalous in the history of the country, and that natural stolidity which had been a strong military quality in him, must explain his insensibility to the reeking atmosphere in which he lived. The popular indignation was expressed in the state and congressional elections of 1874, in which the Republicans in the House of Representatives were reduced to 110 in a total of 292 members, and when even Massachusetts elected a Democratic governor, and a Democratic representation to Congress. In his last message to Congress, Grant admitted that things had not gone altogether as he could have wished, and found fault with the quality of the appointments to office forced upon him by party leaders.

Blaine was the leading Republican candidate for the succession to Grant, but the nomination went to Hayes, of Ohio, an inconspicuous but excellent man. The Democratic nomination went to Tilden, of New York, a vigorous reformer. The election showed 172 undis-



puted electoral votes for Hayes, and 184 for Tilden, with one disputed vote in Oregon that probably belonged to the Republicans, and 12 in the carpetbag-governed states of Louisiana and Florida, that doubtless belonged to the Democrats. There was much intriguing by both parties over these disputed votes, till at last, in the face of impending anarchy or civil war, a mixed commission of justices of the Supreme Court, senators, and representatives, was created to pass upon the disputed votes. The commission was meant to embrace seven each of Democrats and Republicans, and one Independent, but the latter was unable to serve when the time came, and a Republican had to take his place. By a vote of eight Republicans to seven Democrats, the commission gave all the disputed votes to Hayes, and thus elected him over Tilden by one vote, though the presidency really belonged to Tilden, so far as human intelligence can judge. Hayes, however, was able, with a good conscience, to assure the Southern Democrats that he was as tired as President Grant had declared himself, to be of the propping up of carpetbag governments by federal bayonets, and as soon as he took office he redeemed his assurance, and the carpetbaggers and scalawags vanished from sight. He was also a civil service reformer, which made him unpopular with the active men of his party; but his administration was quiet and respectable, and a welcome relief to the country after the strife and corruption of the preceding eight years. Evarts, Sherman, and Schurz were the distinguished members of a cabinet that ranked throughout much higher than the late cabinet. The currency was restored to a specie basis and to the stability it had lost through the greenback issues of the Civil War; but under the influence of the growing strength of the greenback party in the West, the standard silver dollar, which had become a debased dollar by the fall in the value of silver, was restored to the currency, and plagued the country for nearly a quarter of a century.

During the presidency of Hayes, General Grant made a leisurely tour of the world, and was accorded by courts, cabinets, and high society, the rank, precedence, and ceremony, that would have attended the journey of an actual president of the United States. Upon his return, his renewed importance, the desire of his former political intimates, and his own frankly expressed belief that he could put his newly acquired knowledge of high politics, derived from a close intercourse with the sovereigns, statesmen, and other great ones of the Old World, to much public use, made him the leading Republican candidate for the succession to Hayes. But in the national convention of 1880, Blaine and Sherman, his competitors, united their forces, on realizing the hopelessness of their own candidacies, and so threw the nomination to Garfield, of Ohio. With him the convention, by way of

placating the Grant men, yoked Arthur, of New York, lately dismissed by Hayes from the collectorship of customs at New York. The Democrats put up General Hancock, a military idol, and otherwise a taking candidate, and in an ordinary course of events Hancock should have won. But when things were at their worst for Garfield, the hitherto sullen Grant men came over to him; Grant himself went on the stump and talked so well on political questions as to surprise his audiences; and it being impossible to say much about Garfield without suggesting a unfavorable comparison with Hancock, the Republicans settled down upon the protective tariff and began to crowd the Democrats as "British free traders." This frightened the Democratic leaders, and an arrangement was made for an utterance on the momentous question by Hancock, the illustrious soldier. The utterance, when it came, was that "the tariff is very much of a local issue," which was true, but not enlightening nor inspiring, and the issue, which was really interesting the people, being thus evaded, the Republicans fought the campaign out with renewed heart, and Garfield was elected.

Garfield was a good and able man but weak almost beyond imagination, and it is not conceivable that his administration could have been successful or creditable under any circumstances. By putting Blaine at the head of his cabinet, he gave himself a master, and also heedlessly enrolled himself in the deadly feud that had existed for fifteen years between Blaine and Conkling, the brilliant leader of the Republican opposition. Garfield spoke Conkling fair, but the audacious Blaine, thrusting Garfield's promises aside, immediately forced the fighting upon Conkling, and rolled him in the dust. The contest shook the Republican party from end to end, and so fired the weak brain of a petty and disappointed office seeker that he waylaid, and mortally wounded, the President in a railway station at Washington. After a scrupulously fair trial, the assassin was duly hanged, and Garfield's lingering and pathetic death assured him a fame that his continued life could never have won.

Arthur, least known of vice-presidential nominees, proved himself to be one of the best of presidents. For high-minded, conscientious devotion to the general interest he has rarely been equaled, and has never been surpassed. As a political subordinate, he had stooped, and stooped low, but from the moment of his unexpected accession to the presidency he attended strictly to duty. Had he been nominated as his own successor, he would probably have been elected, for the whole country esteemed and admired him; but the practical politicians who conduct nominating conventions are not favorable to men who serve their country first and their party afterward, and Arthur was simply



ignored, as being too good for party uses. The nomination went to Blaine, and it was a defiance to the strong feeling for better men and better methods that had taken hold of many of the rank and file of the Republican party. The politicians who, when they nominated him, sneered at the demand for reform within the party could not undo their work when they found that the reformers meant to bolt the nomination, and they were persuaded that Blaine's own brilliancy, audacity, and magnetism, aided by his yoke-fellow General Logan's popularity, would carry the ticket through. At the worst, as they said, the Democrats could be safely trusted to do foolish things enough to enable a broomstick to beat them for the presidency. What the Democrats did was to nominate Governor Cleveland, of New York, over Bayard, of Delaware, an exalted man who had made a mild, southern-tinged speech in the early days of secession, Hendricks, of Indiana, an estimable politician, without a spark of originality, and Thurman, of Ohio, a delightful old Bourbon. Cleveland was a solemn and plodding man, who took himself and the public business very seriously; without a spark of genius or charm; but brave, truthful, and sincere. He was an untiring foe to jobbery and corruption, and had the old-fashioned notion that men were made to serve the state, instead of the state being the servant and purse-bearer of politicians. The platform had a Jeffersonian ring, and was a deadly, because skillful and truthful, indictment of Republican vices as manifested during the party's long lease of power. Cleveland had a very small lead over Blaine in the popular vote, but by leading him about eleven hundred in the great vote of New York, was elected. Blaine had so narrowly missed the presidency that his agony found voice in a spiteful and unmanly speech, and there was some blustering talk about reversing the eleven hundred votes for fraud, which found no popular support among Republicans, and upon which the Democrats put a quietus by an immediate celebration of their victory, by bonfires and torchlight processions, throughout the Union. The people at large believed that Cleveland had been elected, by howsoever small a majority, and even the Republican masses preferred a Democratic administration to a violation of the principle of majority rule. Indeed, Blaine was strong only with the active politicians, and Cleveland would have been as safe with a majority of eleven as with a hundred times that number.

The first result of Cleveland's election was a panic among the Southern negroes, who feared that they were to be returned to slavery. The fright was momentary, but it brought them during that moment to a realization that their freedom and welfare did not depend upon politics or political parties, and it restored them to better terms with the native whites of their localities. The negro ceased to

be of political importance in the South, but he gained in other ways. Cleveland was an earnest civil service reformer and for that reason, had received much Republican support; but his party had been excluded from patronage for almost a quarter of a century and was clamorous for him to "turn the rascals out." He could not verify his rascals quickly enough and in sufficient number, to appease the clamor, but he found some "rascals," and believed he had found others, and altogether he was in the situation of Jefferson, who made enough removals to exasperate the Federalists and far too few to appease his own following. The Senate, being Republican, and being vexed at the defeat of the party by reformers in its own ranks, thought to shame the latter and to damage Cleveland by trying to fasten upon him a charge of hypocrisy in the matter of his removals of Republicans from office. Its committees, therefore, required the heads of departments to produce the papers upon which removals were made, but these being privileged were not produced. When the play had proceeded for a time sufficient to attract popular attention, Cleveland sent a message to the Senate which clouted it over the head as it had not been clouted since the days of Jackson; and finding the public more interested in the courageous President than in its offended dignity, the Senate gave up the game. Under Cleveland, civil service reform made much progress in giving stability to the minor offices and efficiency to the competitive system of appointment. With a hostile Senate it was not possible for the Democrats to carry a revenue tariff bill, nor was the party united against the protective system. But many important non-partisan laws were enacted, among them a bill to regulate succession to the presidency when the offices of president and vice-president should both become vacant, and a bill to regulate the counting of the electoral vote. There was an outbreak of animosity against Canada, which, in consequence of the hostile tariff and labor laws aimed against her, stood on the letter of the treaty rights concerning her fisheries, and seized and fined many American vessels for invading them. Congress eagerly flocked behind Cleveland when he threatened Canada, but when he made a treaty settling all the matters of controversy, the Senate threw it out with contempt. The outcry against railway discrimination and oppression was met by a law creating a federal commission for the regulation of inter-state traffic, which had a good effect for some years. The President vetoed a bill to pension invalid soldiers and sailors whose disabilities did not arise in service, and the widows and dependent relatives of those whose deaths were not due to their military or naval service, his reasons being that the bill radically changed the principle on which the pension system had rested from



the foundation of the government, and that it would burden the people for many years with an unreasonable expenditure.

In December, 1887, Cleveland devoted his entire annual message to an attack upon the existing tariff, which he denounced as vicious, inequitable, and illogical, and he proposed an abolition of the duty on wool and other raw materials. This set the whole country to talking, and a bill, along the lines of the message, passed the House of Representatives, but did not pass the Senate, where the wool-growing interest was strong. The President signed a very stringent act for the exclusion of Chinese laborers from the United States.

Cleveland was not personally popular with the leaders of his party, but his boldness had made him strong with its rank and file, and in the Democratic convention of 1888, he was renominated by acclamation. Blaine was unwilling to run against him and the Republican nomination went to Harrison, of Indiana, a man of ability and character, though a hide-bound partisan. The platform denounced free wool, the suppression of the negro vote in the South, and an alleged attempt of the Democratic administration to demonetize silver, and to put the country on a monopolistic gold basis. As nominating time had drawn near, there had been a notable slackening in the devotion of the administration to civil service reform, and that, with the general acceptability of Harrison and the zeal with which the protective tariff was driven home, lost Cleveland the Republican vote he had obtained four years before. In the closing days of the canvass, a campaign trick by which the British minister was drawn into expressing an opinion that the election of Cleveland would be the better for British interests, showed that one president seeking reelection is very like another, and the incident was treated by the administration with sole reference to the pending contest for the presidency. Harrison received a smaller popular vote than did Cleveland, but a larger electoral vote, and was elected; the vote of New York, as usual, being decisive.

Harrison had behind him Republican majorities in the Senate and in the House of Representatives, and he set himself to the passage of a new tariff, and of a law to enforce the negro right of suffrage. The tariff was to reduce revenue, to stiffen protection, and to enlarge the free list of raw materials; the enforcement bill was designed to break the "solid South" and to win back some of the Southern states to the Republican column. Both measures created intense partisan and sectional feeling, especially the so-called force bill, which was carried through the Republican House with difficulty and which, after a hot struggle, was killed in the Republican Senate. Its death was fortunate, since the evils of it would have been worse than the evil of the suppressed vote; but the President mourned it, for it was

his pet measure, and it was really based upon the high motive that the right of every legal voter to cast a free ballot, and to have it honestly counted, was the most precious of American rights. The tariff bill, as framed and passed by the House, proved in the end a greater revenue reducer than the public treasury could stand; it was frankly prohibitive wherever the manufacturing interests were sufficiently large or united, to have their full way, and the growing importance of the manufacture export trade was reflected in the enlarged free list and in the liberal drawback provisions for duty-paid materials used in exported manufactures. The tendency of the bill would be to make American manufactured goods cheaper abroad than at home, but that was deemed necessary to effective competition, and the expensiveness at home of things that were cheap abroad was made tolerable by an apothegm of President Harrison, that a cheap coat usually covered a cheap man. In the Senate, under the power of amendment, the bill was greatly altered to please great interests that had not been satisfied with the House concessions, and from the joint committee of the two Houses, to which it went for final reconciliation, it emerged as being the most that the House could concede and the least that the Senate would accept. The bill became a law a month before the congressional and state elections of 1890, and it at once sent the prices of the necessities of life so high that the Republicans were stunned and the Democrats bewildered by the extent of the Democratic victory. Election day changed the Republican representation in the House from a majority of twenty to a minority of 156—the greatest political revulsion in the history of the country; and as it had been occasioned by the tariff, all Democratic eyes were turned on Cleveland, who had been obliged as president to “read the riot act” to his party leaders in Congress in order to induce them to touch the ticklish subject of the tariff.

As Harrison had been elected on a platform friendly to silver as a monetary standard, the compulsory coinage of silver dollars, under the act of 1878, was fast driving the country from the double standard to a single standard of silver dollars worth only half their face value, a compromise was with difficulty effected, by which the coinage of silver dollars was suspended, and a monthly purchase by the government of 4,500,000 ounces of silver bullion substituted. As there was no use for the silver, the purchase was really government bounty paid to the owners of silver mines, but the farmers and wage-earners were so imbued with the notion that silver was the poor man's money, that the bounty had to be paid. As the government was destined to become the owner of a constantly growing stock of silver that could be put to no profitable use, and that would require



an increasing annual outlay for its storage and care, it brought about an international conference at Brussels, to see if the governments of the world could not be induced to join in a common adoption of the double standard at a fixed legal ratio, but as only those governments that were chronically bankrupt, or that were doing business with a paper currency that they could not redeem even in silver, were favorable, the conference failed. It could not have succeeded in any event without Great Britain; but Great Britain had long had the pound sterling, represented by a golden sovereign, worth always, and everywhere, even when melted, its face value, and Great Britain naturally refused to return to the troubled waters from which she had emerged years after the Napoleonic wars, and in which the United States was now waist deep, and the waters still rising. The so-called dependent pension bill, vetoed by Cleveland, was reënacted, and though Windom, of Minnesota, Secretary of the Treasury, and in charge of the finances, made a wry face on seeing the figures of the departmental actuaries, Harrison signed the bill. In four years, the pension roll, which had reached its first high-water mark of \$30,000,000 in 1868, and its second high-water mark of \$70,000,000 at the accession of Harrison, attained its third high-water mark of \$160,000,000, whence it threatened to rise still higher; but the government then being in dire financial straits, the screws were applied with the result of driving it down ultimately to \$140,000,000—to rise again as prosperity returned to the country. The pension legislation growing out of the Civil War has had various important results; for, first, it has presented to very commonplace finance ministers fiscal problems from which Hamilton, greatest of our finance ministers, would have recoiled; secondly, it has put our revenue system for many years to come in pledge to the pension budget; thirdly, by reflex action, it has compelled aristocratic Britain, bureaucratic Germany, autocratic Russia, and even bankrupt Italy and Spain, to liberalize their pension systems in the interest of the hitherto despised man who carries the rifle, and of his dependents, and lastly, it has made the after-cost of a war infinitely greater than its first cost. The now established principle that a man who has served the nation, afloat or ashore, in time of war is, with his family, a ward of the nation thereafter is one of the greatest social changes that the world has seen since the primitive days of the ancient Greek republics.

During Harrison's administration, the principle of non-partisan civil service in purely administrative offices made great advances, owing to the President's Spartan fidelity; and almost equal progress was made in the development of the entirely rational and wholesome doctrine of eight hours as a day's work in regular mechanical, and

manual, employments. People do not always understand that the eight hour day is really the test of the workingman's felt participation in the general amelioration of the civilized world. The manual worker has never aspired to less, but society cannot be adjusted to rational modern conditions so long as more is exacted from him. Years ago the British economist, Professor Thorold Rogers, put the case fairly in his "Six Centuries of Work and Wages," a study of which is still essential to qualify anybody to speak with intelligence upon one of the momentous subjects of the day.

Foreign affairs, under Harrison, were also stormy, the Secretary of State, Mr. Blaine, being in declining health, and the President and himself not in entire cordiality. The Behring Sea fur-seal controversy was allowed to drift dangerously close to war, and was then decided, by an international arbitration, against the claim of the United States to treat that sea as territorial waters. The lynching of some Italian subjects at New Orleans caused a controversy between the United States and Italy which was badly handled on both sides, and which led to a virtual suspension of diplomatic relations for a considerable period. There was trouble with Guatemala over the denial by our government of the right of the local police to arrest a passenger charged with crime, on an American vessel lying in a Guatemalan port. A marked sympathy of our officers in Chili with the unjust and losing side in a civil war in that country caused a popular prejudice against Americans, which found expression in an attack by a rabble upon some seamen of one of our warships, the "Baltimore," who had gone ashore at Valparaiso. The affair was treated by the "yellow journals" in the highest jingo style, and for effect upon the approaching presidential election, the government assumed the same attitude, until Chili yielded under protest as the only alternative of a war that would be hopeless. Taken altogether, the four years of President Harrison must be regarded as among the least successful, and the least gratifying administrations. Blaine had rebelled against the tariff bill and had caused some of the popular prejudice against it; and just as the Republican convention was meeting to renominate Harrison, he abruptly resigned from the cabinet, and put himself up for the nomination. It was the freak of an unbalanced man, without effect, and his death a few months later, from an affection that had long been gathering strength, explained his spasmodic conduct of the preceding few years.

A renomination of Cleveland, by the Democrats, was so inevitable that his rivals and enemies made but a feeble opposition. The platform and the campaign this time were boldly outspoken against protection, and the courage that Cleveland had forced upon his reluctant party won the election. But though the vote of the country had



declared for a low tariff, it was impossible to give effect to the popular will in Congress. The Senate particularly could not be moved, and the final shape of the intended revenue tariff bill was, in Cleveland's declared opinion, so abominable that he refused to sign the bill, and refrained from killing it by a veto only because he deemed it, as a whole, somewhat better than the existing tariff. A sympathetic strike of railway operatives in behalf of some employees of the Pullman car works led to a complete stoppage of traffic between East and West, at Chicago. As the local authorities were overawed or friendly, resort was had by the government to the Federal courts, to enjoin the strikers from interfering with the passage of trains carrying the mails or engaged in interstate commerce. The injunctions were defied, the Federal marshal reported his inability to enforce them, and for two or three days, the president of the American Railway Union, who was directing the strike, reached a height of usurped power never attained by any official authority in the Union, and after the manner of usurpers, issued a flood of decrees to carry on his newly established national government throughout the country. Then the President at Washington sent troops to the aid of the Federal marshal, the trains moved, the new government left no evidences beside the damage done, and the decrees, of its brief existence and the usurper went to cool his heels in jail for defying the decrees of the Federal courts. Cleveland's firm but deliberate action brought him an immense popularity. This was afterward renewed when he suddenly intervened in a dispute of many years standing between Great Britain and Venezuela over the boundary of British Guiana, in an open message to Congress, of such emphasis and menace as to amount to a challenge and provocation to immediate war. That he meant, for some undisclosed reason of policy, to force a war upon England was the popular interpretation of his action, and after the manner of all nations, old and young, great and little, there was a wave of enthusiasm at the prospect of a fight, and Cleveland became the idol of his countrymen. A financial and commercial panic followed the publication of the message, and caused great losses on both sides of the ocean. This had a sobering effect, and in a few days there was a revulsion of the war feeling, which enabled the British Government to hold back without loss of prestige at home. A diplomatic escape was provided by accepting the American view that the messages of the President to Congress are purely domestic matters, the existence of which are presumed not to be known to any foreign government unless officially communicated to it. The final result of the message was to send the boundary dispute to arbitration, where it was decided mainly in favor of British Guiana.

The revenue given up in the so-called McKinley tariff act, passed under Harrison by the free list, the drawbacks, and the prohibitory duties, proved to be excessive, while the government expenditure was constantly rising. This compelled the Treasury to use the gold reserve for the redemption of greenbacks to pay current expenses, and as that reserve diminished it became necessary to provide for replenishing it by a sale of bonds for gold, so that there might be no default in redeeming all the greenbacks presented. Both the law and the necessities of the Treasury compelled the paying out of the greenbacks as fast as they were redeemed, to come back again for redemption. To increase the public debt when a presidential election was coming on was deemed politically unwise, so the sale of bonds was put off until Harrison should be safely through his reelection. As he was defeated, the sale was further put off to make the popular odium fall on the new Cleveland administration, which it did, assisted by the Republican leaders, who knew the truth but had no mind that the people should know it. Cleveland took over from Harrison an empty treasury, an accumulation of debt, a dwindling revenue, a swelling expenditure, and the plates for engraving the new bonds with which the government and the country were to be saved from the consequences of public insolvency. In a moment of anxiety, the new head of the Treasury expressed the fear that he should be driven to pay silver dollars, worth less than half a dollar, where gold dollars were due and demanded, and instantly there was wild panic, commercial failure, and a general paralysis of trade and industry. Values fell with great rapidity, fortunes vanished, enterprise drew into its shell, and confidence was destroyed. Even after the frenzy of the panic had spent itself, there were no means of recovery. The income of the government was largely cut off; its obligations were piling up; it was impossible to secure the passage of a tariff act that would produce revenue enough to restore the government to solvency at any time, nor could any kind of a tariff produce revenue while industry was prostrate. While awaiting the shock of a change from a monetary standard of gold dollars, worth a hundred cents, to one of silver dollars, fluctuating from forty-two to sixty cents, efforts were made to induce Congress to accept gold as the standard of value, and so to take the first step toward a restoration of confidence. But a majority of the Democrats and Populists wanted the silver standard because they contended that it would make money cheap and abundant, and so help the masses; while many of the Republicans preferred to keep the administration in trouble, and so assure a victory to their own party at the next election. The industrial depression and the monetary situation caused heavy distress to the small farmers and to the



wage workers, but most of them in standing out for the silver standard, ignorantly licked the hand that smote them.

The Republican convention nominated McKinley, of Ohio, on a platform of sound money—every dollar worth a dollar—and a tariff that should produce abundant revenue while affording abundant protection—no such tariff having been seen since tariffs began. Against him the Democrats and Populists united on a magnetic young orator, who had taken the Democratic convention by storm, and who promised to restore the masses to freedom from the money changers, as Moses had freed the Israelites, and Lincoln the negroes, by coining all the silver upon which hands could be laid into dollars lawfully worth a dollar, though actually worth less than half a dollar. He was also for a low tariff, to help to release the people from the grasp of the trusts. All parties made the campaign one of education; the tariff dropped out of sight as the popular interest centered about the battle of the standards; the contest brought out the fullest strength of both sides, and McKinley won, though the show made by the losing side was disquieting to the losers.

McKinley came to the presidency after a long experience of congressional life, usefully supplemented by a service as governor of Ohio. As fully as Lincoln understood the common people, McKinley understood the average public man, and he knew that such make up the great body of contemporary statesmen. He, himself, had maintained throughout his career a high character for public and personal integrity; was of an open, amiable, and sympathetic disposition, and, like his predecessor Madison, had never made a personal enemy. As a conscious possibility for a presidential nomination and election during the later years of his congressional life, McKinley had carried himself upon a somewhat higher plane than does the casual representative, who hopes for no more from a brief service at Washington than an increase of distinction at home. The bent of his thoughts and aspirations led to his becoming well qualified for the practical side of a president's life, and he had a fair notion of what he might aim to accomplish and of the means of its achievement. Possessed at last of the presidency, it was his natural and commendable wish to avoid a repetition of the stormy and unsuccessful four years of Harrison, and of the acrid and arid second term of his immediate predecessor. His resolve was taken to keep always on terms, and in touch, with Congress, both in its collective character, and personally with those who were the recognized leaders of its sentiment and action. To do this would involve no sacrifice of either pride or principle, for he looked upon the two houses of Congress as constituting the highest and most authentic exponent of the popular feeling and will, and

his good opinion of the general conduct and motives of public men in the mass rested upon what he regarded as the sure foundation of many years of intimate acquaintance and association with many hundreds of them. To give effect to the popular feeling and will had been his faithful and honest endeavor in Congress and during his governorship, and though, as President, he saw his responsibilities grow, in the sense of their being larger and more numerous, he did not see them as rising higher than their source, the popular will. For him to have stood upon a hilltop, Cleveland fashion, and to have commanded the people and their leaders below to come up to him, would have seemed sheer arrogance and vanity, and, with him, would have been congenitally impossible; for he could not if he would, and he would not if he could. To be one with Congress was his duty as he saw it, and his point of view made the performance of that duty attainable. Two consequences flowed from this conscientious determination, which were, that when he and Congress differed, he must go part, and sometimes all, of the way to reach a meeting place, and that, in the matter of patronage, the life blood of politics, in action, he must often give up the really best for the possible best. Thus, while as President he has made some strikingly fit appointments to office, the average level of his whole mass of appointments has been lower than those of Presidents Hayes, Arthur, Harrison, and Cleveland, and the phrase "something equally as good," which has indelibly attached itself to the record of his administration, indicates the extent to which the public offices have been regarded as political lubricants of the alliance with Congress and its leaders rather than as lofty public trusts. What McKinley, left untrammelled, would have done has been over and over again indicated in his presidential writings and speeches, which rise very high; but trammelled as he was by Congress as it was, and by its very human leaders, his speeches so often have flown over the heads of his acts as to have subjected him to the unjust charge of insincerity. In the final account, what he has refused to do must be considered; but his refusals rarely come to light. One of them did in the preliminaries of the war with Spain, and this may be taken as an example of the merit of the rest. Congress tried to impose upon him a recognition of the shadowy revolutionary government of Cuba, which would have brought the intervention of the United States to disastrous embarrassment and grievous humiliation, and McKinley set his foot upon it so firmly that Congress retreated. The congressional leaders wanted a war, certain to be victorious, for its popularity and patronage; but McKinley, whose diplomatic successes by way of peaceful intervention had been unprecedented in the national history, was opposed to



war. Though, like Madison, he yielded in the end, and perhaps unwisely yielded, on the question of going to war, he firmly drew the line at a congressional intention that would have placed the government in an ignoble and injurious situation, and it is not probable that the Cuban incident is the only important one in which he has been obliged to take a firm stand in the public interest.

Though the platform upon which he was nominated declared for the gold standard, McKinley himself was a doubting Thomas upon the political expediency and the economic advisability of committing the Republican party to the "goldbug" policy. He therefore ignored it when elected and installed, and called Congress together to pass a new high tariff bill, upon the blessings of which he had no doubt whatever. This was promptly done and, owing to the alliance between President and Congress, done much better than ever before. Before its merits and defects could be judged, the country was at war with Spain, and in the flush of enthusiasm, Congress laid such productive taxes upon domestic resources that the tariff disappeared from public sight. The nation as a whole, however, has largely outgrown its dependence upon protective tariffs, which have unquestionably done it service, even if at a high cost; and as soon as the Senate is freed from particularist influences, which still affect it, revenue tariffs, with incidental protection merely, will probably be the vogue.

Reluctantly consenting to a war with Spain, the President gave himself entirely to a close personal supervision of the business, and despite some corruptions and defects, and many criticisms, it was the best managed war in which the United States has ever been engaged, and it was attended by far less of robbery and speculation. There was no glory in it, for Spain was exhausted and her whole administration rotten and inefficient in every branch; but the condition, power, and direction of the navy was gratifying to the national pride, and raised that always popular branch of service to an even higher popularity. As events turned out, the army assembled was much in excess of actual need, but the country appreciated the wisdom of being prepared for a serious struggle. Brief as the war was, it removed the last remnant of sectional bitterness arising out of the Civil War, and to that result the conduct of McKinley admirably contributed. The war led to the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands, the cession of Porto Rico, and the Philippines, and to the possession and administration of Cuba. This brought the government into new relations with other powers, and cast upon it many unfamiliar legal and political responsibilities. Honest fears were expressed that the novel situations created, especially in relation to millions of subject peoples, not adapted to American national life, would prove too severe a strain

upon our political system and capacity, and would impair for ourselves the priceless blessings of the Constitution, as illustrated for more than a century. Nothing serious has happened as yet to sustain those fears, and the first conditions, never grave, have steadily improved. In the absence of an effective public opinion, on the spot, it will not do to job out the important offices in our new possessions as part of the political patronage, but the indications are that the public services in those possessions will gradually be brought to a proper standard of character and stability, and that no great offenses or scandals will occur in the meantime. The prospect is too hopeful to warrant undue exaggeration of the few mishaps and miscarriages that have occurred. The popular sensitiveness to small peculations, jobberies, and scandals, and the sensational treatment of them by the press, happily work in the right direction.

Like every other first-term president, McKinley might have been defeated for reëlection after his own party had renominated him, if the opposite party had been enthusiastic and aggressive, strongly united upon a candidate who really stood for something of great and current interest, and whose positive character would have thrown him into sharp contrast with the nebulously amiable figure of McKinley. But the Democratic machinery was in the hands of the Populistic section of the party, and in the end, McKinley was confronted only by the defeated candidate and defeated issue of four years before, and the popular verdict was so pronounced as to send the Democrats into retirement for reorganization and a general overhauling. This they will probably effect by 1904, and that done, their chances ought to be two to one as against the Republicans. In any event, the monetary question appears to have been settled for all time in favor of the gold standard, and tariffs and trusts henceforth are not likely to be explosive political questions.

In August, 1901, McKinley was President of the U. S., in the full flush of health and robust manhood, and at the zenith of a long, useful and brilliant public career. On the 6th of Sept. following, the baleful tidings of his assassination, at Buffalo, N. Y., caused throughout the U. S. a paroxysm of inexpressible grief and horror; the whole world was shocked by the atrocious and causeless crime. President McKinley had accepted an invitation to visit the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, and was accompanied by his wife, several members of his Cabinet, and other official and personal friends. On the previous day, in the Temple of Music, to a vast audience, he had delivered an address that was characteristic of the man in its sentiments of lofty patriotism, and the expression of his earnest desire to promote in the largest measure the welfare of the nation and the con-



tinued prosperity and happiness of its people. The address was received with loud acclaim and aroused the multitude of listeners to a climax of enthusiasm and cordial good feeling. It was an occasion to quicken the pulse of every true American and to cause his heart to swell with pride and love of country. The next day, returning from a short trip to Niagara Falls, the President acceded to the wish of the people and held a reception in the Temple, and thousands of people, passing in single file, took him by the hand. A man approached having one hand wrapped in a white cloth and held at his breast. This caused no remark, for the natural presumption was that he was suffering from an injury, and the President gave him a look of sympathy as he greeted him in turn. Concealed by the covering, the dastard held in his hand a loaded revolver, with his finger on the trigger. Giving his other hand to the President, a token of friendship, at the same time he fired two shots in quick succession. It was done in an instant, before the amazed and horror-stricken bystanders could realize the murderous design. Then the assassin was overpowered and hurried away by officers to escape the fury of the people. Placing his hand to his breast, the President sank into the arms that were outstretched to receive him. A hasty examination showed that one bullet had struck the breastbone and had not passed into the body; the other had entered the body at a lower point and penetrated the stomach. The distinguished sufferer was removed to the home of John G. Milburn, president of the Exposition company, where he received every care and attention possible for loving hands and surgical skill to bestow. Meanwhile the tidings of the assassination were flashed to all parts of the country, and of the civilized world, evoking everywhere expressions of sorrow and sympathy without precedent. Telegrams by thousands gave utterance to the intensity of feeling that stirred the emotions, not only of the American people, of every class, creed, and condition, but of both rulers and people in all foreign countries. For six days the patient seemed to improve, and the character of the bulletins issued at stated periods each day by the attending surgeons was such as to justify the belief that he would recover. Such was the belief until Friday, Sept. 13, one week after the shooting. On that day the President had an unlooked-for relapse. He sank rapidly and his condition became alarming. Before night the doctors expressed the opinion that death was inevitable. He died at 2:15 o'clock, on the following morning, Sept. 14. He was conscious until near the end, and his last words, spoken to those about his bed were: "Goodby, all, goodby! It is God's way; His will be done!" The body was taken to Washington, where the state funeral was held in the rotunda of the Capitol. Thence the remains were removed to

the family home, in Canton, Ohio, for interment. Mr. McKinley was in the 59th year of his age.

On the death of McKinley, Vice-President Roosevelt took the oath of office of President of the United States, at the hands of Judge John R. Hazel, of the United States District Court, at the residence of Mr. Ansley Wilcox at Buffalo, N. Y. In doing so, he stated that it would be his aim to continue absolutely unbroken the policy of President McKinley for the peace and prosperity and honor of his country. The simplicity of the ceremony and the ease with which the mantle of government was passed from one to another is a remarkable instance of the stability of the national institutions. In his first message to Congress, the President dwelt at length upon the horrors of anarchy and the necessity of greater stringency and closer supervision of the immigration laws. In a later message he recommended to Congress the immediate appropriation of \$500,000 for the relief of the sufferers from the eruption of Mt. Pelee, in the island of Martinique. This was instantly granted and applied to the relief of the people. He urged the consummation of Cuban reciprocity as a necessary act to complete the work of assistance to the island. This was granted by special session of Congress in December, 1903. A strike of coal miners in the anthracite coal regions of Pennsylvania began May 12, 1902, and lasted until October 23, a period of 165 days. It was a most disastrous industrial struggle in the history of labor. The miners were financially supported by the entire body of organized labor. They wished that their grievances should be submitted to arbitration, but the coal operators and coal-carrying road presidents refused to permit this. After much suffering and the failure of many attempts to settle the difficulty, President Roosevelt called the coal operators and Mr. John Mitchell, the President of the United Mine-workers of America, to a conference in Washington, D. C., on October 3. Mr. Mitchell proposed arbitration, but the coal operators refused it. The President, after consultation with his cabinet, decided to call a special session of Congress, but, on October 7, sent Commissioner of Immigration, Frank P. Sargent, to propose to Mr. Mitchell, that if Mr. Mitchell would induce the miners to resume work at once, the President would appoint a commission to inquire into the conditions and urge upon Congress the adoption of such legislation as was required. This offer was refused as being too indefinite. On October 9, Mr. Mitchell and his immediate associates met Senators Platt, Quay, and Primrose, with Governor Odell, in New York. After the conference the Governor and Senators met the coal operators, where nothing was accomplished, although Governor Odell, and Senator Quay threatened that an extra session of the legislatures of New York and Penn-



sylvania would be called to force an issue. President Roosevelt then sent Secretary of War Root to New York to confer with J. Pierpont Morgan, who had control of the chief roads concerned, to ask him to take immediate action. Mr. Morgan had so far refused to move in the matter; but he now went to Washington and conferred with the President. As a result of this the board of five commissioners was appointed to arbitrate upon the questions. They were: Brigadier-General John N. Wilson, U. S. A., retired, late chief of Engineers, Washington, D. C.; Mr. E. W. Parker, an expert mining engineer of Washington, D. C.; Hon. George Gray, of Wilmington, Del.; Judge of the United States District Court; Mr. E. E. Clark, grand chief of the Order of Railway Conductors, and sociologist, of Cedar Rapids, Iowa; Mr. Thomas H. Watkins, coal miner and seller, of Scranton, Pa.; Bishop John D. Spalding, Roman Catholic Bishop, of Peoria, Ill.; Mr. Carroll D. Wright, member and recorder of the commission. The miners resumed work on October 23, and the commission proceeded with the investigation. A compromise agreement was arrived at which satisfied all parties. While President Roosevelt was making a tour of the New England States he was injured in a collision of his carriage with a motor car at Pittsfield, Mass., in September, 1902. William Bray, a secret service detective, was killed while attempting to protect the President. The trip was continued, but the President was compelled to undergo an operation on his return home.

The settlement of the Alaska boundary question on October 20, 1903, was eminently satisfactory to the United States, not only from a territorial standpoint, but especially in removing from the political arena a point of dispute that might give rise to situations of danger, and acuteness in the peace of nations. It was also a triumph for the advocates of settlement of vexed questions by arbitration.

The commission was composed of Secretary Root and Senators Lodge and Turner representing the United States; Sir Louis Jette and the Hon. A. B. Aylesworth, representing Canada; Baron Alverstone, Lord Chief Justice of England. Ex-secretary John W. Foster was counsel for the United States and Clifford Sifton was counsel for Canada. The commission came to a decision in London on October 17, 1903. The credit of the harmonious conclusion is given to Baron Alverstone. Canada gave expression to much dissatisfaction over the award which shut her out from the sea except at the southern extremity where she has control of Portland Canal and the adjacent islands overlooking the terminus of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway. It was felt, however, that Canada gained much more by this concession than the United States lost. The conclusion of a question which had remained open for four or five years did away with a

constant menace to the peace of both nations. Canada pretended to see in it a repetition of the Ashburton treaty award of the Aroostook section and complained vigorously over the apathy of the English when her interests were at stake. While the United States seemed to see in the impartiality of Baron Alverstone an essential quality of fitness for the high and responsible office he holds. There were admirable concessions and yielding on both sides which spoke volumes for the preservation of the entente cordiale of the two nations. The value of the territory at issue is insignificant in comparison with the display of fine spirit on both sides.

The Smoot case placed the Mormon Church on trial. It had been clearly shown in the Roberts case that no polygamist can be tolerated as a United States representative. The Reed Smoot case would seem to show that no Mormon, whether polygamist or not, is acceptable to the people of this country as a member of its law-making bodies. Reed Smoot was nominated for the office of United States senator by the republican caucus in Utah and easily elected. The women of the country used the organization of the several woman's clubs as a means of circulating petitions against his taking a seat in the Senate. A committee was appointed to investigate; witnesses were examined; the secrets of the Mormon Church were probed; and the case went over from session to session. Opposition was kept up with great vigor, and towards the close of the session of 1906 a report of the committee, not wholly unanimous, was read adversely to Senator Smoot. But no vote of the Senate was taken and the matter went over until the next year. The great opposition to Senator Smoot was based upon the fact, that while not a polygamist he is one of the twelve apostles of the church of the Latter-Day Saints. President Roosevelt, following a similar course pursued by Presidents Cleveland and McKinley, sent word to Mr. Smoot before the election that he strongly advised against his candidacy.

The severance of relations between Panama and Colombia; the prompt, almost immediate, recognition of the new republic by the United States; called out a flood of insinuations, inuendoes, and accusations not only from foreign papers but many of the home journals regarded the action of the President as falling little short of piracy. It was made the subject of a rigid investigation by Congress and all of the papers in the case were submitted and examined.

Secretary Hay placed the course of the government very calmly and judicially before the country. He maintained that the course which had been adopted and rigidly adhered to was based upon the principles of justice and equity. The treaty made with New Granada in 1846 guaranteed to the United States the right of way or transit



over the Isthmus of Panama by or through any mode of communication that might be established; and that such should be free and open to the people and government of the United States. In return for such privilege the United States guaranteed to New Granada the absolute neutrality of the isthmus so that free transit should in no wise, at any time, be interrupted or imperilled. While the name of New Granada has disappeared, that covenant should and does hold so long as the isthmus remains a geographical fact. When, as in all similar cases, the fact had been reported that a new republic of Panama had been erected, and that the government was both competent and stable, the President at once caused the representatives of the nation at Panama to enter into official relations with the country. Such attitude of firmness of counsel to both Panama and Colombia as he took in advising a peaceful settlement of existing claims was taken with a view to the termination at once and forever of the constant civil strife and rebellion that had for so long a time been the curse of Panama. The action of the President was compelled by the interests of the isthmus, the people of Colombia, the people of the United States, and the commerce of the world.

Such was the presentation of the case made by the secretary of state. While efforts were made in Congress to magnify the political aspect of the question and to criticise the government for the assumption of the two tasks of protecting the republic of Panama and of completing the enormous engineering feat upon which France failed so ignominiously and disastrously, and to complete it within ten years, it must not be lost sight of that this is a purely commercial enterprise. A consideration of the tremendous saving in distances between points not only in the United States but in European countries will make clear the attitude of many democratic senators, especially from the south who did not vote against the ratification of the treaty.

DISTANCE FROM	TO	BY WAY OF CAPE HORN	BY THE SUEZ CANAL	BY THE PANAMA CANAL	ADVANTAGE IN FAVOR OF PANAMA CANAL
Hamburg.....	San Francisco.....	15,140	.....	8,488	6,652
Hamburg.....	Hong Kong.....	18,480	10,542	14,933	.....
Hamburg.....	Melbourne.....	13,802	12,367	13,198	.....
Hamburg.....	Yokohama.....	17,979	12,531	13,024	.....
New York.....	San Francisco.....	14,840	.....	5,299	9,541
New York.....	Hong Kong.....	18,180	11,655	9,835	1,820
New York.....	Melbourne.....	13,502	.....	10,427	2,863
New York.....	Yokohama.....	17,679	13,464	9,835	3,729

Throughout the debate and controversy, the late Senator Gorman held tenaciously to the greater, as he claimed, advantage of the Nic-

araguan Canal route over the isthmus. But the Panama route was chosen, the transfer of property from the French company made, and the United States entered with characteristic vigor upon the work of construction.

A commission of seven members was appointed in 1904. They were all skilled engineers, and the work was begun under their direction. So much time was spent in preliminary work and in clearing the way for the real work that the government and the country, perhaps too impatient to "see the dirt fly," were dissatisfied with the executive abilities shown, and the President called for their resignations. It was felt that seven active members made too cumbersome a force. In April, 1905, a new commission was appointed of which three are the master spirits and four are to be regarded as appointments made to meet the requirements of the law. The new commission was as follows:—

Theodore P. Shonts, President of the Toledo, St. Louis, and Western Railroad, Chairman.

Charles E. Magoon, General Counsel of the late commission, Governor of the Canal Zone.

John F. Wallace, Chief Engineer of the late commission.

Rear-admiral M. T. Endicott, U. S. N.

Brigadier-general Peter C. Hains, U. S. A. retired.

Colonel Oswald H. Ernst, Corps of Engineers, U. S. A.

Benjamin M. Harrod, re-appointed.

Mr. Shonts is general manager with supreme authority, at a salary of \$30,000 a year; Mr. Wallace was to plan and execute the engineering features at a salary of \$25,000 a year; and Judge Magoon as Governor directed the civil features and acted as legal adviser at a salary of \$17,500 a year. It is necessary that these officials reside on the isthmus. The remaining four members are obliged to meet with the first three, four times a year on the isthmus. Their salary is \$7,500 a year. The three executive officers meet regularly once a week.

To the surprise and expressed annoyance of the government Chief Engineer Wallace suddenly resigned his position in June, 1905. He was succeeded by Mr. John F. Stevens, a railroad man of long experience and recognized ability.

Labor conditions were the most difficult to overcome on the isthmus. In May, 1906, there were 19,000 laborers employed. The work of sanitation, and house and wharf building was carried on rapidly. Most of the laborers are Jamaicans, whose capacity for a day's work falls far below that of the average American workman. The district is as healthful as any tropical region can be made.



Colonel W. C. Gorgas, "who knows more about fighting yellow fever than any other man in the world" has had charge of the sanitation.

The Tulloch charges of fraud and corruption in the purchasing department of the Post Office opened up what proved to be a serious and far-reaching scandal. The President pushed the investigation with characteristic zeal and empowered Fourth-Assistant Postmaster-General Bristowe to probe the charges to the bottom. There was in some quarters a slight disposition manifested to hush matters up to save the credit of the Republican party. But the President insisted that whatever the result, and no matter who was hurt, the party would be best served by rigid inquiry and exposure. Under authority Attorney-General Knox appointed Charles J. Bonaparte, of Baltimore, and Holmes Conrad, who was Solicitor-General under Cleveland, special attorneys for the prosecution. Rigid investigation revealed wholesale plundering of the government in the purchase of supplies, especially in the rural free delivery department. Indictments followed, and the offenders were punished by fine and imprisonment.

Anti-trust legislation was a feature of Congress in 1903. Three acts were passed in this direction. The first provided that suits brought under the Sherman anti-trust law shall have speedy trial before a full bench of circuit judges and a direct appeal to the supreme court. The second, the Nelson amendment to the bill creating the Department of Commerce, provided for the appointment of a commissioner of corporations in connection with that department. Upon him is conferred power to make investigation into the affairs, acts, and business of corporations, and joint stock companies with a view to gathering information to lay before the President so as to enable him to make recommendations for the proper regulation of commerce. The third, or Elkins law, makes it unlawful for any railroad to give any rebate of transportation charges under penalty of a fine of from \$1,000 to \$20,000 for each offense.

The Department of Commerce, of which George Bruce Cortelyou was appointed first secretary, was formed of several bureaus detached from other departments.

It includes:—

- Bureau of Statistics from the Treasury Department.
- Bureau of Statistics from the State Department.
- Department of Labor.
- Lighthouse Establishment from the Treasury Department.
- Steamboat Inspection from the Treasury Department.
- Bureau of Standards from the Treasury Department.
- Coast and Geodetic Survey from the Treasury.
- Bureau of Immigration from the Treasury.
- Bureau of Navigation from the Treasury.

Census Office from the Interior Department.

Fish Commission.

Shipping Commission from the Treasury.

Bureau of Corporations under the Nelson amendment.

This legislation, especially that on the publicity provided for in the erection of the department of commerce and the powers of investigation conferred upon it was the first step in the growing power of the government over commerce. Many have claimed to see in it a danger of interference in interstate commerce which might through over-zeal infringe upon state rights. There was the fear also that regulation of trade and commerce, if carried too far, might become prohibition. Mr. James R. Garfield, of Ohio, was appointed to the office Commissioner of Corporations in the new Department of Commerce. He is a son of President Garfield, and made his mark in the Ohio State Senate and in the United States Civil Service Commission. The work of his department has brought about a sort of commercial moral house-cleaning. The activity of the department gave rise to the expressions of "trust-busting" and was a part of the "big-stick" policy as the vigorous manner and measures of the president were termed. Startling revelations were made. The scandals and exposures of the insurance companies, beef-packers, railway rebates, and in other directions has given rise to the term of "muck-raking" in commercial exposures. The Pure Food bill passed in 1906 may be regarded as a direct outcome of this investigation. It provides for rigid inspection and careful marking of products. The secretary of agriculture is empowered to make regulations for its proper enforcement.

Early in 1904, George B. Cortelyou, Secretary of Commerce, resigned his office to become chairman of the Republican National Committee. He was succeeded by Victor H. Metcalf, representative in Congress from California. In February of the same year, Secretary of War Root resigned his position to take up his professional work in the city of New York. He was succeeded by William H. Taft, Governor of the Philippines. Attorney-General Knox resigned from the cabinet and was elected United States senator to succeed the late Senator Quay. Secretary of the Navy Moody resigned that position and succeeded Philander Knox as Attorney-General. Paul Morton, vice-president of the Atchuson, Topeka, and Santa Fe Railroad became secretary of the navy. He is the son of the Secretary of Agriculture under Cleveland and, though a Palmer Democrat in 1896, voted in 1900 for President McKinley. On the death of Postmaster-General Payne in October 1904 as a consequence of the shock, worry, and labor connected with the postal frauds, Hon. Robert J. Wynne succeeded to that office.



Marked changes in the location and personelle of the ambassadors occurred at this time. Robert S. McCormick was transferred from St. Petersburg to Paris; George V. L. Meyer from Rome to St. Petersburg; Joseph F. Choate retired from London and was succeeded by Whitelaw Reid, editor and director of the New York Tribune; and Henry White was promoted from the office of Secretary of the Embassy at London to Ambassador at Rome.

In June, 1904, the Republican convention met at Chicago and nominated President Roosevelt for President and Senator Charles Warren Fairbanks of Indiana for Vice-president.

The Democratic convention met at St. Louis in July and nominated Judge Alton B. Parker for President and ex-Senator Henry G. Davis of West Virginia for Vice-president. Judge Parker notified the convention by telegraph that the gold standard in this country is "firmly and irrevokably established." This did not meet with Mr. Bryan's approval and he left a sick bed contrary to his physician's advice and protested angrily against the declaration of this principle by the convention. But it was adopted by a vote of 774 to 191.

Thomas E. Watson of Georgia was the nominee of the Populist party; Silas C. Swallow, of Pennsylvania, of the Prohibitionist party; and Eugene V. Debs of Indiana, of the Socialist party.

The total popular vote cast at the election was 13,523,796. President Roosevelt received 7,642,897; Parker, 5,093,566; Debs, 397,209; Swallow, 245,802; Watson, 113,415; and Corregan, Socialist Labor, 30,907. The electoral vote gave Roosevelt 336 and Parker 140. Roosevelt's plurality was 2,549,331.

The work of the Fifty-eighth Congress was not remarkably brilliant. Its legislation was marked by a noticeable degree of conservatism. Several important measures were allowed to lie over until another year. Tariff revision, railway rate bills, statehood bills, the Santo Domingo treaty, Panama legislation, went over without definite action. The arbitration treaties were so amended that they were withdrawn. A point of order disposed of the attempt to raise the salary of the President. The chief work consisted in the passage of an appropriation of over \$800,000,000. Two new battle-ships were provided for. Several bills providing for more rigorous steamboat inspection were designed to prevent a repetition of the Slocum disaster. The Confederate and Union flags were ordered to be returned to their respective states. An investigation of the methods of the Standard and other oil companies was set on foot by congressional inquiry. There was very marked opposition to measures favored by the President. This was almost wholly confined to the Senate. Amendment of the arbitration treaties, inaction on the railway rate bill,

opposition to the Santo Domingo treaty, and the support of the President by the Democrats were the most noticeable features of this opposition. The members in the closing days voted themselves mileage amounting to \$190,000 for the extra session of 1903. This session was merged directly into the regular session, but as the President made some "recess appointments" it was construed as constructively dividing the sessions and the members claimed the mileage which the law allowed. The Senate struck the provision out of the appropriation bill. A partial report of the investigation into the workings of the Beef Trust reached the house in its closing days. This was, on the whole, favorable to the packers.

On April 3, the President began his trip to the South and Southwest. He was enthusiastically received throughout his long journey. Besides the short stops and addresses en route he stopped at Louisville, passed through Kansas, Indian Territory, and was present at the Rough Riders' reunion at San Antonio, Texas, where he received an enthusiastic welcome. Thence he went to Fort Worth, and reached Colorado Springs on April 14 on his way to the hunting camp. On his return he reached Chicago when the Teamsters' strike was at its height. He took occasion in addressing the strikers to announce his hearty endorsement of all of Mayor Dunne's efforts to preserve order and to maintain the law. Next day he received a delegation of the strikers in protest against calling out the Federal troops. His straightforward action in this matter met with the approval of the heads of the labor unions, who declared that the President had done more for the cause of labor by seeking to preserve order and to prevent violence than anything else that had occurred during the strike. While in Chicago, the President was the guest of honor at a banquet given by the Democratic Iroquois Club.

The death of John Hay, Secretary of State, occurred at his summer home Lake Sunapee, in New Hampshire, on July 1, 1905. Politicians of all parties united in doing honor to his memory and freely made the statement that during his career he had raised American diplomacy to the highest point in foreign capitals. Mr. Hay had declared that the Golden Rule and the Monroe Doctrine were the basis of American diplomacy. He was a unique figure in political life in America in that he never throughout his career held an elective office. Among his greatest diplomatic achievements are to be recorded the arrangement of the protocol of peace between the United States and Spain; the settlement of the clash with Great Britain over the Alaska Boundary; the modification of the German law regulating the inspection of American beef; the securing of an important coaling station for the United States in Samoa; the abro-



gation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and the substitution of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty which rendered it possible for the United States to undertake the building of the Panama Canal. His last great work was the preservation of the "open door" and the integrity of China and the prevention of that country from suffering from the ravages of the Russo-Japanese War.

Elihu Root succeeded Mr. Hay as Secretary of State. In doing so he relinquished the richest law practice in the world amounting to more than \$200,000 a year and the unchallenged primacy of the New York bar to accept an office paying only \$8,000 a year.

General Horace Porter, United States ambassador at Paris, undertook at his own expense to find the body of John Paul Jones. After a long and expensive search the body was found in the forgotten cemetery on the Rue Grange-aux-Belles in Paris enclosed in a lead casket. The body was handed over to a United States naval escort with great ceremony by the French representatives. It was brought to America and placed in a temporary vault at Annapolis. On April 24, 1906, the body was laid to rest in Bancroft Hall, Annapolis, where it will remain under guard until the new chapel is completed.

The intercession of President Roosevelt between Russia and Japan resulted in the appointment of peace envoys who after a short visit to Washington sailed together to Portsmouth, N. H. on the yacht *Mayflower* to begin their negotiations there on August 5. The treaty of Portsmouth was signed on September 5, and ratified October 13, 1905. (See JAPAN.)

The suddenness of the Panama revolution and independence was one of the remarkable events of the administration. Independence was declared on November 3, 1903; the United States recognized that independence on November 6, and on November 18 a canal treaty between the United States and the new republic of Panama was signed by Secretary Hay and Minister Bunau-Varilla at Washington. The Government of Panama ratified this treaty without amendment on December 2.

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ADAMS, CHARLES FRANCIS.—(1807-1886.) Son of John Quincy Adams, American statesman and diplomatist.

ADMIRAL.—The word was introduced into Europe by the Crusaders in the Middle Ages. The rank of admiral in the U. S. navy, as distinguished from that of vice-admiral and rear-admiral, was established

by act of Congress, July 25, 1866. There have been only three admirals in the U. S. navy. David G. Farragut was commissioned in 1866, and David D. Porter in 1870, after Farragut's death. The rank became extinct at Porter's death in 1891, but was revived in 1899 and bestowed upon George Dewey.

ADMISSION OF STATES.—By the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, July 4, 1776, the original Thirteen Colonies which formed the Union were created "free and independent states." Several of the Colonies had already changed their original charters and established independent local governments. A resolution was passed Oct. 10, 1780, by the Continental Congress, which provided that western territory to be ceded to the U. S. "shall be settled and formed into distinct republican states, which shall become members of the Federal Union." The following steps are necessary for the admission of a territory to statehood: (1) A petition to Congress expressing the desire of the people for admission; (2) an enabling act passed by Congress, stating the conditions of admission; (3) the adoption of a constitution and form of state government by a convention of delegates chosen by the people; (4) the ratification of the constitution and the election of state officers by the people; (5) a proclamation by the President that the territory has become a state. The admission of a state to the Union dates from the day on which the act takes effect.

"ADVANCE AGENT OF PROSPERITY."—A political sobriquet applied to William McKinley by his supporters in the presidential campaign of 1896. The people were suffering from great commercial and industrial depression and it was urged by Republicans that the election of Mr. McKinley would bring prosperity to the country.

AGUINALDO, EMILIO.—A Filipino insurgent leader against the United States, but now recognizing and accepting its authority in the Philippines, was born in 1870 near Cavité, in the Island of Luzon, one of the Philippine group. He is of mixed European and Mestizo or native half-breed descent, was educated by a Jesuit priest, and has studied medicine at Manila and at Hong Kong, where he is understood to have become a member of a revolutionary society. This society, known as the Catapunans, had for its object the freeing of the Philippines from the rule of Spain. In the furtherance of this design, he took part in the native insurrection of 1896, but is believed to have been bribed by Spain to take himself off to Hong Kong, where in 1898, on the outbreak of war between Spain and this country, he became a professed ally of the United States, and in April of that year was given passage to Manila on the dispatch boat "McCulloch." On



landing in Luzon, he with his native following took part with General Merritt in the siege and capture of Manila and the Spanish soldiery; but a month later his ambition incited him to turn against American as well as against Spanish rule and to set up a provisional government with himself as President. Carrying his project into effect, he subsequently dispatched several envoys to Washington urging the administration to recognize the native insurgent government, and when this was refused he assumed active hostilities against the United States, even though Spain had made peace with that power and had entirely withdrawn from the country. In Feb., 1899, he declared war by formal proclamation against this country, and for a period of two years he defied its authority and in various parts of the Tagal provinces maintained harassing but desultory fighting. It was during this period that Major-General H. W. Lawton, in command of a U. S. corps, was killed in an action at San Mateo, Dec. 17, 1899. Throughout the following year Aguinaldo and his associates were actively pursued by bodies of United States troops, but though hard pressed at times he and his following eluded capture; until by subterfuge they were entrapped in the mountains, near Palanan, Mar. 23, 1901, by Brig.-general Fred. Funston, made prisoners, and brought to Manila. Here Aguinaldo, accepting his defeat, took the oath of allegiance to the United States, and issued a manifesto to his countrymen urging them also to surrender and to recognize the sovereignty of this country. Although a prisoner at Manila, he is devoting much attention to the sociological and political conditions of the people. In 1903 he submitted an elaborate system of finance and banking to be applied to the Philippines.

ALGER, RUSSEL ALEXANDER.—An American soldier and statesman, born in Lafayette, Ohio. He was admitted to the bar in 1859. He served in the Union army in the Civil War at Gettysburg and the Shenandoah, and retired with the rank of brevet major-general. Then he settled in Detroit and engaged in the lumber business. He was Republican governor of Michigan (1884). In 1888 his name was brought forward unsuccessfully for the nomination for President. He was commander-in-chief of the G. A. R. in 1897, and was appointed secretary of war by President McKinley in the same year. He resigned in 1899. In 1902 he was appointed U. S. senator and re-elected in 1903. His term expires in 1907.

ALLEN, WILLIAM.—(1806–1879.) An American statesman, born in Edentown, North Carolina. He was admitted to the bar of Ohio in 1827. He was elected to Congress in 1831, and was the youngest member of the Senate. He refused the nomination for President on

the Democratic ticket in 1848 as he had pledged himself to Lewis Cass. He was governor of Ohio (1873) and was defeated for re-election by R. B. Hayes. He opposed national banks and bimetallism.

ALLISON, WILLIAM BOYD.—An American statesman, born in Perry, Ohio, 1829. He was admitted to the bar in 1857, and then removed to Iowa. He was a member of the governor's staff and very active in raising volunteer corps at the beginning of the Civil War. He was elected to Congress in 1862 and re-elected for four consecutive terms. He was elected to the U. S. senate in 1873 to succeed Senator Harlan. He has been continuously re-elected. His term of office expires in 1909. He is especially prominent in Republican politics and has been a leading candidate for presidential nomination on several occasions.

ALTGELD, JOHN PETER.—(1847-1902.) A prominent public man, born in Germany. He settled in Ohio in 1849. In 1864 he enlisted in the Union army. He was judge of the superior court of Cook County, Illinois (1886); and the governor of Illinois (1892-1896). He denounced President Cleveland's action in sending troops to Chicago during the railroad strike; and, in 1896, inserted a plank to that effect in the Democratic platform.

ALLEGIANCE.—Blackstone says "allegiance is the tie which binds the subject to the sovereign, in return for that protection which the sovereign affords the subjects." Natural or implied allegiance does not arise from any express promise, but is the obligation that one owes to the nation of which he is a citizen or subject, by either birth or adoption, as long as he remains such. Express allegiance is that which results from an expressed oath or promise. Local allegiance which is temporary and expires with residence, is the obedience and temporary aid due by an alien to the state or community in which he lives. (See NATURALIZATION.)

AMBASSADOR.—An envoy, plenipotentiary, or minister-diplomat of eminence or of high rank sent to a foreign government or court to represent his own country or sovereign. Until lately the United States, adhering to its Democratic traditional policy, has withheld the term or title in sending its accredited representatives abroad to foreign courts or legations. This coyness it has, however, got over, the change occurring on the passing in 1893, of the Diplomatic and Consular Appropriation bill. The measure empowered the President to raise American diplomats and ministers to the rank of ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary, in the case of those accredited to the court of St. James (London), Paris, Rome, and Berlin. (See UNITED STATES, DEPARTMENTS OF [The Department of State].) The first American who held this diplomatic rank was Thomas F. Bayard, who,



by virtue of the act of Mar. 3, 1893, became ambassador to Great Britain. The term had for many years before been used, but always erroneously, to describe our envoys to foreign countries. Ambassadors are now accredited to France, Italy, Germany, Russia, and Mexico. Before that time the representatives of the U. S. to those countries were called, simply, ministers.

"AMERICA FOR AMERICANS."—The "Monroe Doctrine" in a nutshell. (See MONROE, JAMES.)

AMERICAN PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION.—Its principles, proclaimed in its platform of 1894, are (1) protection of our non-sectarian free public school system; (2) no public funds or property to be used for sectarian purposes; (3) the preservation and maintenance of the Constitution and Government of the U. S.; (4) restriction of immigration; (5) extension of time required for naturalization. Organized in 1887, the A. P. A., as it is commonly called, has councils in nearly every state and while disclaiming to be a political party, has influenced results in many elections.

AMERICAN REPUBLICS, BUREAU OF.—Established in 1889, at the instance of the Pan-American Congress, to collect and disseminate information concerning the North American and South American republics. Its work has been of much commercial value. It reports to Congress.

AMES, OAKES.—(1804-1873.) An American manufacturer, capitalist, and politician. He was interested in the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad, and was Republican member of Congress from Mass. (1863-1873). He was censured by the House for his connection with the Credit Mobilier—a financial scheme, alleged to be corrupt, incidental to the construction of the above named railroad.

AMNESTY.—A pardon for political crimes and offenses which are specified in the act of amnesty and are so obliterated that they can never again be charged against the parties named or described. Absolute amnesty is that which is proclaimed without reference to persons or places. President Lincoln's first amnesty proclamation, during the Civil War, excepted all officers or agents of the Confederate government, all of its army officers above the rank of colonel, all naval officers above the rank of lieutenant, all who had resigned from the military or naval service of the United States to participate in the Rebellion, and all who had treated negro soldiers or their custodians otherwise than as prisoners of war. President Johnson proclaimed universal amnesty in 1868. Amnesty was practiced in ancient times, especially among the Greeks.

ANGEL, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.—(1815-1894.) An American lawyer and diplomatist.

ANNEXATION.—The individual states, after the adoption of the Federal Constitution, ceded to the U. S. all territory west of the lines they established as their western boundaries. This territory, in the original charters, extended nominally to the Pacific Ocean, but actually only to the Mississippi, as Louisiana and Florida were held by Spain. In 1880 France acquired La., which in 1803 was bought by the U. S. for \$15,000,000. La. then included all the territory which now constitutes the state of that name lying west of the Mississippi, with New Orleans and the adjoining district east; Ark., Iowa, Mo., the Dakotas, Mont., Neb., Ind. Ter.; parts of Id., Minn., Colo., Wyo., and Kan., with a total area of 1,171,931 sq. miles. In 1819 Spain sold Florida to the U. S. for \$5,000,000, and Texas was admitted as a state in 1845. Through the Mexican War and the payment to Mexico of \$18,250,000 and \$10,000,000 to Tex., territory embracing Cal. and parts of N. Mex., Nev., Ariz., Wyo., and Colo. was acquired, and later, by the Gadsden treaty, the southern parts of Ariz. and N. Mex. were purchased. In 1867 the U. S. paid Russia \$7,200,000 for Alaska, and Hawaii was acquired by treaty in 1898. As a result of the war with Spain, Porto Rico, the Philippine Islands, Guam (of the Ladrone group), and other small islands, also belong to the U. S.

ANTI-MONOPOLISTS.—A political party that was formed in 1884 and demanded the passage of the interstate act, which later became a law. Its platform favored economical government, the enactment of equitable laws, establishment of labor bureaus, legislation to insure industrial arbitration, a graduated income tax, a direct vote of the people for U. S. senators, payment of the national debt as it matures, and "fostering care" for agriculture. It opposed a protective tariff and grants of land to corporations. At its convention in 1884 it nominated Gen. B. F. Butler for President. He was indorsed by the Greenback-Labor party and the combination, which became known as the People's party, polled 130,000 votes. Later the Anti-Monopolists were merged into the Populist party.

ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL.—Resort to this expedient was long agitated, and prominent instances in U. S. history in which it has been employed, are the cases of the Alabama claims, the Northwestern Boundary, the Fisheries Dispute, the Bering Sea Seal Fisheries, and the Venezuelan Boundary. A treaty providing for arbitration of all disputes not involving national honor, was signed by representatives of the U. S. and Great Britain in 1897, but it was rejected by the U. S. Senate.



ARMS AND AMMUNITION.—The use of firearms is almost coincident with the invention of gunpowder, about the year 1320. Gunpowder was used in military operations in England in 1346. A cannon was employed at the siege of Adrianople by Mahomet II. in 1543. In that year the first English cannon was cast. The Swiss, it is recorded, had 10,000 arquebusiers in 1471, and at Pavia, in 1525, the Spaniards, with 800 musketeers and 2,000 arquebusiers, defeated the French, the firearms deciding the battle. The flintlock was used in the British army from 1630 until 1840. Hessian soldiers had rifles in 1631. The Fergusson breech-loading rifle, as well as the flintlock, was in use during the Revolutionary War. Hall, in 1811, began to make the first practical breech-loading arm manufactured in the United States, and between that year and 1844 he furnished 10,000 to the government. Many experiments in breech-loading rifles were made in the following 17 years, and during the Civil War the government made and bought, here and abroad, more than 4,000,000 small arms of some 30 different patterns. These included, besides the breech-loading rifles, carbines, the Henry magazine gun, and the Spencer repeating rifle. Investigations by military boards led in 1873 to the selection of the Springfield rifle, which was retained for 20 years. Between 1880 and 1890 magazines were substituted for the single breech-loading apparatus, the caliber of the ball was diminished, and smokeless powder was employed. Until a few years ago the different forms of gunpowder used all over the world had been the same for a century. The French were the first to make a satisfactory smokeless powder for small arms. The material is melanite, and when used in individual firing from rifles, the film of smoke it produces is not visible beyond 300 yards. Cannonite, fulgerite, progressite, Americanite, and Schnebelite are among the latest explosives made here. The army's main depot for the storage of powder is at Dover, N. J. The government buys from private firms for both branches of the service. Naval projectiles are made at the naval gun foundry, Washington, D. C. Armor-piercing shells, carefully machined and tempered, cost far more than ordinary projectiles. The Krag-Jørgensen cut-off model magazine rifle has been the standard in the United States service since 1892. It weighs 8.7 pounds, has a 30-inch barrel, and its caliber is but three-tenths of an inch. Wetterin smokeless powder gives an initial velocity of 2,000 feet per second to the bullet, and the magazine holds 5 cartridges.

ARMY.—The American military establishment may be said to date from 1775. June 15 of that year the Continental army was organized by Congress. Between 1775 and 1781, the aggregate of the troops raised by the latter body and the militia enlisted by the states was

about 70,000 men, of whom not more than half were at any one time in active service. Congress established the War Department, Aug. 7, 1789, and Nov. 5, 1783, the Revolutionary army was disbanded, except 1,000 men retained to assist in forming the peace establishment. This number was increased slightly during the Indian and French wars; but up to the outbreak of hostilities with England in 1812, did not, at any time, exceed 5,000 men. From 1812 to 1815, the regular army numbered 30,000, and 470,000 militia were enlisted. Thereafter, and until the Mexican War, the men under arms in the regular army averaged about 9,000. During that conflict it was trebled and 74,000 volunteers were also enrolled. On the proclamation of peace the regular establishment was reduced to 10,000, and later was increased to 12,000. In the first year of the Civil War the regular army was raised to 35,000; but the militia and volunteers actually under arms vastly exceeded this number. President Lincoln's first call, Apr. 15, 1861, was for 75,000 three-months men. Subsequent enlistments were generally for three years. At the beginning of 1862 the volunteers numbered 550,000 and during the next three years, the average volunteer strength was 900,000. When the war was ended the Union army numbered above 1,000,000. The grand total of Federal enlistments was 2,688,523. At the beginning of 1862, the Confederate army numbered about 320,000 and averaged about 550,000 during the next three years. All told, 1,600,000 men served in the army of the Confederacy. In 1867 the regular U. S. army peace establishment was fixed at 54,641 and was later reduced until in 1875 it was only 25,000. Just before the Spanish-American War it was composed of 10 regiments of cavalry, 8,410 men; 5 regiments of artillery, 2,900; 25 regiments of infantry, 13,525; 1 battalion of engineers, 216; total, 25,051. These figures did not include brigade and staff officers. When the war with Spain broke out, two regiments of artillery were added to the regular forces and the line was reorganized on the basis of two battalions of four companies each to the regiment and two skeleton companies. Upon a declaration of war, the latter companies are to be manned and with two others, which may be raised, will form the third battalion in each infantry regiment. During the war with Spain, the U. S. had ready for duty an average of above 250,000 men, regulars and volunteers. Only a small fraction of them saw active service and after the war, the actual duration of which was less than three months, most of the volunteers were discharged. During the war in the Philippines, which followed, a force of from 50,000 to 75,000 men was maintained there. With the subsidence of the insurrection, the number was much reduced by the muster-out of the volunteers.



The army in active service is organized under act of Congress of February 2, 1901. It is made up of:

Cavalry, 15 regiments, 750 officers, and 12,620 men.

Artillery, 30 batteries of field and 126 companies of coast artillery, 651 officers and 17,742 men.

Infantry, 30 regiments, 1,500 officers, and 25,345 men.

Engineers, 3 battalions, 1,282 men.

Staff corps, Military Academy, Indian scouts, recruits, etc., 2,877 men.

Puerto Rico, 1 regiment, 31 officers, 554 natives.

Philippines, 50 companies native scouts, 100 officers, 5,000 men.

The total number of active officers is 3,831, and the total enlistment, 59,866. The total enlistment must not exceed 100,000 men.

ARSENALS.—There were neither armories nor arsenals in the U. S. before the Revolution. Virginia made powder, Philadelphia cast cannon, and an arsenal was established at Carlisle, Pa., in 1776. The Springfield, Mass., arsenal, which dates from 1787, now produces 1,000 rifles a day. The Harper's Ferry arsenal was founded in 1795, and in 1860 there were 23 arsenals in this country. The principal ones now employed are at Allegheny, Pa.; Augusta, Ga.; Benicia, Cal.; Cheyenne, Wyo.; Columbia, Tenn.; Fort Leavenworth, Kan.; Fortress Monroe, Va.; Fort Snelling, Minn.; Frankford, Pa.; Indianapolis, Ind.; Augusta, Me.; Springfield, Mass.; Governor's Island, N. Y.; Rock Island, Ill.; St. Louis, Mo.; San Antonio, Tex.; Dover, N. J.; Vancouver, Wash.; Watertown, Mass., and Watervliet, N. Y. Different arsenals have their specialties. Naval guns and projectiles are made at Washington, D. C. This is the largest of the arsenals and forms a part of the Navy Yard equipment. It is confined almost entirely to the manufacture of large guns for the navy. The guns are roughly cast and forged at several steel works throughout the country, especially at Bethlehem, Pennsylvania. In this form they are shipped in parts to Washington and are drilled, bored, rifled, smoothed and finished at the Navy Yard. The facilities for handling with marvelous ease these enormous masses of steel in all stages of manufacture and the precision with which they can be placed in any required position by means of electric cranes attract great attention. Almost all of the cartridges and similar ammunition is manufactured at the arsenals at Springfield, Mass., and at Rock Island, Illinois.

ARMIES OF THE LEADING WORLD POWERS, ON A PEACE AND ON A WAR FOOTING.

Nation.	System.	Peace Footing.	*War Footing.	Guns (Approximate Number).	Military Expenditure.	Term of Service or Liability.	
						Years.	Total
Austria.....	Compulsory Service.....	361,693	2,000,000	2,000	17,000,000	3 A + 7 R + 2 L <sup>1</sup> + 10 L <sup>2</sup> .....	22
Belgium.....	Conscription and Voluntary.....	48,500	150,000	204	1,936,000	8 A + 5 R.....	13
Bulgaria.....	Compulsory Service.....	44,000	200,000	492	934,000	2 or 3 A + 8 or 6 R + 7 L <sup>1</sup> + 8 or 9 L <sup>2</sup> .....	25
China.....	Enlistment.....	About 100,000 trained men.	61,500	96	?	1 or 1½ A + 7½ or 6¾ R + 8 L <sup>1</sup> .....	16
Denmark.....	Compulsory Service.....	9,769	3,500,000	3,648	650,000	3 A + 10 R + 6 L <sup>1</sup> + 6 L <sup>2</sup> .....	25
France.....	Compulsory Service.....	616,475	430,000†	1,100‡	28,500,000	7 or 8 A + 5 or 4 R, 3 A + 9 R.....	12
Great Britain.....	Voluntary.....	160,000	280,000	306	27,160,000	From 3 years upwards for natives.....	18
India.....	Compulsory Service.....	223,000	4,000,000	4,524	30,100,000	2 or 3 A + 4 R + 5 L <sup>1</sup> + 7 L <sup>2</sup> .....	28
Germany.....	Compulsory Service.....	585,496	82,000	114	650,000	2 A + 8 R + 8 L <sup>1</sup> + 10 L <sup>2</sup> .....	7
Greece.....	Compulsory Service.....	16,000	68,000	108	2,000,000	1 A + 6 R.....	19
Holland.....	Conscription and Voluntary.....	27,696	1,138,000	1,726	10,000,000	2 to 5 A + 7 A or 4 R + 10 L <sup>1</sup> .....	23
Italy.....	Conscription Service.....	324,686	532,000	792	3,700,000	3 A + 4 R + 5 L <sup>1</sup> + 11 L <sup>2</sup> .....	30
Japan.....	Conscription.....	125,000	151,000	96	1,000,000	50 days A + 6 R + 6 L <sup>1</sup> + 4 L <sup>2</sup> .....	16
Mexico.....	Conscription and Voluntary.....	32,143	72,000	66	600,000	3 A + 6 R + 6 L <sup>1</sup> + 9 L <sup>2</sup> .....	24
Norway.....	Conscription and Voluntary.....	18,000	176,000	384	1,750,000	4 A + 13 R + 5 L <sup>1</sup> .....	22
Rumania.....	Compulsory Service.....	63,660	5,000,000	5,000	35,700,000	3 A + 3 R + 6 L <sup>1</sup> .....	12
Russia.....	Compulsory Service.....	860,000	700,000	408	5,800,000	68 days or 3 years A + 8 R + 4 L <sup>1</sup> + 8 L <sup>2</sup> .....	20
Spain.....	Conscription.....	98,140	520,000	300	900,000	1 A + 11½ R + 12 L <sup>1</sup> + 6 L <sup>2</sup> .....	30
Sweden.....	Conscription and Voluntary.....	40,000	509,000	288	1,120,000		
Switzerland.....	Compulsory Service.....	17,800					
†Transvaal and Orange Free State.....	(Now annexed by Britain)						
Turkey.....	Compulsory Service in War.....	550†	55,000†	100†	500,000;‡	15 to 60 years of age.....	..
United States.....	Compulsory Service.....	250,000	900,000	1,356	7,000,000	4 A + 2 R + 8 L <sup>1</sup> + 6 L <sup>2</sup> .....	20
	Voluntary.....	100,000	.....	504	46,000,000	5 A.....	5

A = Active Army. R = Reserve. L<sup>1</sup> = Landwehr, or Territorial Army. L<sup>2</sup> = Landsturm, or Territorial Reserves.

\*The war strength of the various armies can only be given in round numbers as official figures are not published. †Before the late war.

‡Estimate of 1900-1. This total includes the British forces, regular and irregular, in South Africa, and the regular forces elsewhere, excluding India.

Does not include volunteers, militia, etc., at home.

§Sir C. Dilke's figure for British "normal expenditure" at home.

|| This figure excludes the old muzzle-loading, mountain guns, and the so-called volunteer artillery of position, which is obsolete and useless, but includes siege-train, etc.



## CHESTER ALAN ARTHUR

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*He took the executive chair when Garfield died.*



CHESTER ALAN ARTHUR, twenty-first President of the United States, was born at Fairfield, Franklin County, Vermont, October 5, 1830. His father, William Arthur, was a Baptist minister of Irish birth. Chester was the eldest of nine children. As a child, he went to school in Union village, Washington County, New York. Later he attended an institute in Schenectady, where, at the early age of fifteen, he entered Union College. During his sophomore year, and again during his senior year, he taught school at Schaghticoke. He was popular among his fellows at college, and, although a close student, was a member of several fraternities. He was graduated in 1848, with high honors. When Mr. Arthur left Union College, he decided to follow the law as a profession, and attended the Ballston Spa Law School. In 1851 he became principal of an academy at North Pownal, Vermont, a school in which, three years later, James A. Garfield taught penmanship. While here, Arthur still found time to pursue his law studies. In 1853 he went to New York, where he entered the law office of E. G. Culver. After one year of study, he was admitted to the bar, and became a member of the firm of Culver, Parker and Arthur.

Arthur had strong antislavery sympathies. Early in his career he won the celebrated Lemmon case, which decided whether a slave was liberated by being taken into a free state, while passing from one slave state to another. The decision in the affirmative was, of course, contested. Again, Arthur, as state's attorney, associated with William M. Evarts as counsel, won the case, in the supreme court. The decision was confirmed by the court of appeals. In 1856 Arthur, always interested in politics, came before the public as a delegate to the Saratoga convention, where the Republican party was practically born.

When Edwin D. Morgan was elected governor of New York, he appointed Arthur engineer-in-chief on his staff, with the rank of brigadier-general. Arthur had already been judge-advocate general of the second brigade of the state militia. Because of his experience,

when the rebellion broke out he was made quartermaster-general of New York, in which position he displayed remarkable administrative ability. A number of soldiers equal to nearly one-fifth of all that went to the front from that state, were clothed, uniformed, equipped and transported to the seat of action in an incredibly short time.

In 1862 General Arthur was appointed inspector-general; but he lost this position a year later, when a Democratic state administration came in. He returned to his profession, and associated himself with Henry C. Gardner. Then he was alone for five years; after which he became the senior partner in the firm of Arthur, Phelps and Knevals.

In 1871 President Grant appointed General Arthur to the important position of collector of the port of New York. Here he proved himself most faithful, efficient and conscientious in the performance of duty. Many real reforms and improvements were instituted; men were advanced from the lower grades, and removed only for good cause. Nevertheless, when President Hayes succeeded General Grant, Arthur was requested to resign, owing to a desire on the President's part to favor a factional minority of his party. Arthur refused to resign; and proved that under his charge the revenues had greatly increased, while the cost of collection had diminished.

When General Arthur was nominated to the vice-presidency, in 1880, there were two factions in the Republican party. Garfield, who was elected President, was a strong adherent of one, and Arthur's nomination was intended to placate the other. As Vice-president, Arthur supported the President's opponents; hence, when Garfield was assassinated and Arthur succeeded to the presidential chair, there was considerable unrest among the people. He took the oath of office as President before Judge Brady, of the New York supreme court, at his residence, 123 Lexington Avenue, New York City, immediately upon the death of Garfield, September 19, 1881. Three days later the oath was formally re-administered by Chief-Justice Waite, of the United States Supreme Court, in the Vice-president's room in the Capitol at Washington, and there President Arthur delivered his inaugural address.

The fears of those who had dreaded Arthur's accession were quickly set aside by the latter's manifest policy of moderation. The administration was an uneventful one. Arthur has been unfavorably criticized for lack of aggressiveness, but at that time aggressiveness would probably have injured, rather than benefited, the country. He was a true patriot, working always for his country's good. During his term of office, measures were recommended for the better control of the Indian tribes. Stringent laws against polygamy in Utah were



enacted. The President was opposed to extravagant appropriations, and won the approbation of many by vetoing the river and harbor bill of 1882.



October 19, 1881, President Arthur attended the centennial anniversary of the surrender of Cornwallis, at Yorktown, and a monument commemorating the event was dedicated at that place. English and German warships were present. At the close of the ceremony, President Arthur directed a salute to be fired in honor of the British, in recognition of the present friendly relations between America and England. The President's name was presented to the Republican national convention in Chicago, in 1884, but James G. Blaine received the nomination.

In person, President Arthur was tall, well-proportioned, and of distinguished presence. At home, among personal friends, he was affable and generally beloved; while in official life his intercourse was marked by uniform courtesy. At the White House he was liberal in hospitality. He was a man of culture and literary taste. He retained what he read, and was quick to illustrate a point by an anecdote, or by analogy. His state papers were simply worded and to the point. In all that pertained to his office he was conscientious and courageous to carry out his convictions.

General Arthur was married, October 29, 1859, to Miss Ellen Lewis Herndon, of Fredericksburg, Virginia, daughter of Commander William Lewis Herndon, of the United States Navy. They had three children. The eldest died at the age of three years; the two others, Chester Alan, and Ellen Herndon, known as "Nellie," survived. Mrs. Arthur died in January of the year 1880, one year and a half before her husband's accession to the presidential chair. During his presidency, his sister, Mrs. McElroy, was mistress of the White House, over which she presided with grace and dignity.

Ex-President Arthur died of apoplexy, November 18, 1886, at his home in New York City. The funeral services took place the following Monday, at the Church of the Heavenly Rest. President Cleveland and many other distinguished persons were present. The body was afterward taken to Albany and interred in the family plat in Rural Cemetery.

ASSESSMENTS, POLITICAL.—The tax levied on officeholders and candidates for office by the political parties to which they belong, to defray the expenses of a campaign. Assessments are sometimes proportioned to the salary of the office held or sought. The system of levying political assessments first received wide publicity from the Swartwout Congressional Investigating Committee, when an ex-deputy collector of the port of New York testified that he had often been asked to contribute while in office. Assessments have been quite general since 1840. Civil service reformers contend that the system is pernicious and demoralizing, and that an enforcement of the civil service laws would relieve officeholders of the objectionable assessments, insure a tenure of office contingent upon good behavior instead of partisan activity, and raise the standards of public service.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL.—The first ministerial law officer of the U. S. There was also an attorney-general under the Colonial system. The judiciary act of 1789 provided for the existing office. The incumbent in 1814 became a member of the Cabinet, and in 1858 the office of assistant attorney-general was created. All U. S. district attorneys and marshals are accountable to the attorney-general, whose office with its auxiliaries have, since 1870, constituted the Department of Justice.

The following is a list of the attorneys-general of the United States:

Edmund Randolph	Va. . . .	1789	Washington.	Reverdy Johnson . . . . .	Md . . .	1849	Taylor.
William Bradford . . .	Pa. . . .	1794	"	John J. Crittenden . . . . .	Ky. . . .	1850	Fillmore.
Charles Lee . . . . .	Va. . . .	1795	"	Caleb Cushing . . . . .	Mass. . .	1853	Pierce.
" . . . . .	" . . . .	1797	Adams.	Jeremiah S. Black . . . . .	Pa. . . .	1857	Buchanan.
Theophilus Parsons	Mass. . .	1801	"	Edwin M. Stanton . . . . .	Ohio. . .	1860	"
Levi Lincoln . . . . .	" . . . .	1801	Jefferson.	Edward Bates . . . . .	Mo. . . .	1861	Lincoln.
Robert Smith . . . . .	Md. . . .	1805	"	Titian J. Coffey (ad in.)	Pa. . . .	1863	"
John Breckinridge . . .	Ky. . . .	1805	"	James Speed . . . . .	Ky. . . .	1864	"
Caesar A. Rodney . . .	Del. . . .	1807	"	" . . . . .	" . . . .	1865	Johnson.
" . . . . .	" . . . .	1809	Madison.	Henry Stanbery . . . . .	Ohio. . .	1866	"
William Pinkney . . . .	Md. . . .	1811	"	William M. Evarts . . . . .	N. Y. . .	1868	"
Richard Rush . . . . .	Pa. . . .	1814	"	Ebenezer R. Hoar . . . . .	Mass. . .	1869	Grant.
" . . . . .	" . . . .	1817	Monroe.	Amos T. Ackerman . . . . .	Ga. . . .	1870	"
William Wirt . . . . .	Va. . . .	1817	"	George H. Williams . . . . .	Ore. . . .	1871	"
" . . . . .	" . . . .	1825	J. Q. Adams.	Edwards Pierrepont . . . . .	N. Y. . .	1875	"
John McP. Berrien . . .	Ga. . . .	1829	Jackson.	Alphonso Taft . . . . .	Ohio. . .	1876	"
Roger B. Taney . . . .	Md. . . .	1831	"	Charles Devens . . . . .	Mass. . .	1877	Hayes.
Benjamin F. Butler . . .	N. Y. . .	1833	"	Wayne MacVeagh . . . . .	Pa. . . .	1881	Garfield.
" . . . . .	" . . . .	1837	Van Buren.	Benjamin H. Brewster . . . . .	" . . . .	1881	Arthur.
Felix Grundy . . . . .	Tenn. . .	1838	"	Augustus H. Garland . . . . .	Ark. . . .	1885	Cleveland.
Henry D. Gilpin . . . .	Pa. . . .	1840	"	William H. H. Miller . . . . .	Ind. . . .	1889	B. Harrison.
John J. Crittenden . . .	Ky. . . .	1841	Harrison.	Richard Olney . . . . .	Mass. . .	1893	Cleveland.
" . . . . .	" . . . .	1841	Tyler.	Judson Harmon . . . . .	Ohio. . .	1895	"
Hugh S. Legare . . . . .	S. C. . .	1841	"	Joseph McKenna . . . . .	Cal. . . .	1897	McKinley.
John Nelson . . . . .	Md. . . .	1843	"	John W. Griggs . . . . .	N. J. . .	1897	"
John Y. Mason . . . . .	Va. . . .	1845	Polk.	Philander C. Knox . . . . .	Pa. . . .	1901	"
Nathan Clifford . . . .	Me. . . .	1846	"	" . . . . .	" . . . .	1901	Roosevelt.
Isaac Toucey . . . . .	Conn. . .	1848	"	William H. Moody . . . . .	Mass. . .	1904	"

BALLOT.—A little ball. The term covers all forms of secret voting, as in early times such votes were determined by balls of different colors deposited in the same box, or balls of one color placed in



various boxes. The Greeks used shells (*ostrakon*), whence we derive the term ostracism. In 139 B. C. the Romans voted by tickets. The ballot was first used in America in 1629, when the Salem Church thus chose a pastor. It was employed in the Netherlands in the same year, but was not established in England until 1872, although in Scotland it was used in cases of ostracism in the 17th century. In 1634 the governor of Mass. was elected by ballot, and the constitutions of Pa., N. J., and N. C., adopted in 1776, made this method of voting obligatory. The ballot progressed slowly in the Southern States, Ky. retaining the *viva voce* method until a comparatively recent date. In certain states, the constitutions stipulate that the legislatures shall vote *viva voce*. Since 1875 all congressmen have been elected by ballot. In 1888 the Australian ballot system, which requires the names of all the candidates for the various offices to be placed on one large sheet of paper, commonly known as a "blanket" ticket, was adopted in Louisville, Ky., and some sections of Mass. It is now in very general use in this country. The voter, in the privacy of an individual booth, indicates his preference by making a mark opposite a party emblem or a candidate's name. This system originated in 1851 with Francis S. Dutton, of South Australia, and Henry George, in a pamphlet, "English Elections," published in 1882, was the first to advocate it in the U. S. The first bill enacting it into a law here was introduced in the Michigan legislature in 1887, but it did not pass until 1889.

BAYARD, THOMAS FRANCIS.—Born at Wilmington, Del., 1828; died, 1898. An American statesman and politician. He served 16 years in the U. S. senate (1869–85); was a member of the Electoral Commission (1877); was secretary of state in the first administration of President Cleveland (1885–89); was appointed ambassador to England (1893), and was the first to hold that diplomatic rank; was twice (1880 and 1884) an unsuccessful candidate for the Democratic nomination for President.

BELMONT, AUGUST.—Born in Germany, 1816; died at New York, 1890. A German-American banker and politician. He served as Austrian consul at New York, and U. S. minister to the Netherlands; was chairman of the Democratic National Committee (1860–72). He was a patron of the turf and an art collector.

BENJAMIN, JUDAH PETER.—(1811–1884.) A prominent Confederate statesman, born in St. Croix, West Indies. He was of Jewish descent. After graduating from Yale, he was admitted to the bar of New Orleans in 1834. He was a Whig U. S. senator in 1852, and was re-elected as a Democrat in 1857. He resigned when Louisiana seceded.

While he favored the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, he also accepted the Dred Scott decision. Jefferson Davis made him secretary of state for the Confederacy, and he administered affairs so well that he has been called "The Brains of the Confederacy." He fled to the Bahamas from Richmond after the war, thence to London, England, where he studied law at Lincoln's Inn and was admitted to the English bar, and was made a Queen's Counsel. He died in Paris, France.

BERGH, HENRY.—Born at New York, 1823; died there, 1888. The founder and president of the American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals. Was secretary of legation and acting vice-consul at St. Petersburg, Russia (1862-64).

BERING SEA FISHERIES.—The U. S. Government, in 1886, advanced the claim that Bering Sea was a *mare clausum* (a closed sea), and that the U. S. had jurisdiction over its eastern half. In the cession of Alaska in 1867, Russia pretended to grant such rights, although in 1882 the U. S. had questioned Russia's claim to sovereignty beyond the usual three miles from the shore. Under the new contention, both Canadian and American vessels were seized for catching seals in violation of the laws of the U. S., which had granted a monopoly of seal fishing to the Alaska Commercial Company. The capture of Canadian vessels resulted in a claim for damages by the British Government. Secretary Blaine and Sir Julian Pauncefote, the British ambassador, conferred over the affair, but reached no conclusion. The whole subject was eventually referred to a board of arbitration, two members of which were appointed by the U. S., two by Great Britain, and one each by the president of France, the king of Italy and the king of Sweden and Norway. The sessions of the tribunal were held in 1893, and Aug. 15 of that year a decision denying the right of the U. S. to jurisdiction outside the three mile limit was rendered. To protect the seals against extermination, the board designated May to Aug. 1, as a closed season in the disputed waters, and prohibited pelagic sealing within 60 miles of the Pribyloff Islands, also sealing with firearms or in steam vessels.

BEVERIDGE, ALBERT J.—An American Republican statesman, born on a farm bordering Adams and High Counties, Ohio, in 1862. After the war his parents removed to Illinois. He graduated from De Pauw University, Indiana, in 1885. His early life was one of great privation. He was a plowboy at 12, a railroad laborer at 14, and a lumber logger and teamster at 15. After that he attended school, and read law. He entered college with no other capital than fifty dollars loaned to him by a friend. He served as steward of a college



club, and added to his original fund of fifty dollars by taking the freshman essay prize of twenty-five dollars. In the summer, he returned to work in the Moultrie County harvest fields and broke the wheat-cutting records of the county. He carried his books with him morning, noon, and night, and studied persistently. When he returned to college he began to be recognized as an exceptional man. He had shaped his course and worked to it.

While he attended to the duties which fell to him as steward of a club, he lost no time. He tried to win every prize offered for competitive effort, and won enough money-prizes to pay his college expenses for two years. He won in the state oratorical contest in 1884, and also in the interstate competition at Columbus, Ohio, where he met the champions of all the Mississippi Valley state associations.

He was admitted to the bar in 1886. He practised in Indianapolis. He was elected U. S. senator in 1899 to succeed Senator Turpie. His term expired in 1905. In 1903 he published his experiences in Russia and Siberia.

BIDWELL, JOHN.—(1819-1900.) An American statesman born in Chautauqua County, N. Y. He was in the Mexican War, when he attained the rank of major. He was elected to Congress in 1864. He was chosen as the Prohibition nominee for the presidency of the United States in 1892.

BINGHAM, JOHN A.—(1815.) American lawyer; congressman (1854-63); judge-advocate of the army (1864); solicitor of the court of claims; congressman (1865-73); U. S. minister to Japan (1873-85).

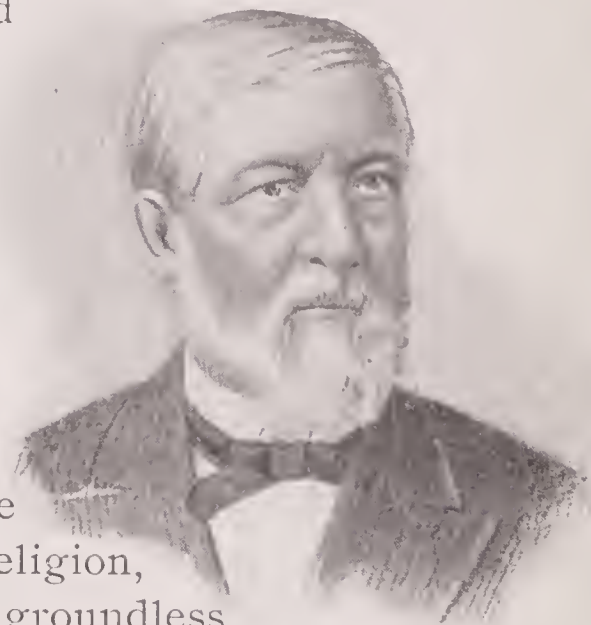
BLACK, JEREMIAH SULLIVAN.—(1810-1883.) An American lawyer and statesman, born in Somerset County, Pa. He was admitted to the bar in 1831. President Buchanan made him attorney-general. He resumed his law practice after his term of office, and was noted for his work in the Vanderbilt will case.

## JAMES GILLESPIE BLAINE

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*The "Plumed Knight" whose magnetism drew millions to him.*

MR. BLAINE left few of the marks of a statesman in the history of his country, and as a politician he was bold rather than adroit; but he had more people personally devoted to him than any other public man in our history except Henry Clay, whom he most nearly resembled. Blaine was a bright boy, of good Scotch-Irish stock, but in place of the canniness of that race he had a fervid temperament, quite foreign to the type, which was the cause at once of his successes and his defeats. This probably came from his mother, whose characteristics were reproduced in him, allowing for difference of sex and for his larger sphere. She greatly influenced his early years, and was the innocent occasion of the accusation made against him long after her death, that he had abandoned the Catholic faith for the Protestant religion, as an aid to his political fortunes. The charge was groundless. The devout mother, naturally enough, had sought to bring the child under the influence of what she deemed the one true religion, and when manhood came, and the filial tie was broken by death, the son simply reverted to his own religious preference.



The education of a clever youth is apt to be superficial, by reason of his intuition overrunning the orderly progress of instruction, and this was the case with Blaine. He was a college graduate a few months after reaching his seventeenth year, and was then, what he always remained, brilliant, if not profound. He spent seven years in teaching at district schools, an academic school in Kentucky and lastly in a school for the blind, and so far as personally influencing and interesting his pupils went he was a distinct success. Had his own education been more deliberate and solid, his aptitude as an instructor, especially on the personal side, would probably have led him on in time to the gratifying and satisfying rank of a professor at one of the important universities. But he was of too impulsive a nature to be patient in anything, and as he lacked the foundation for an eminent career as an educator, his ambition was forced in other directions. While still teaching, he thought of the law as a vocation



and as an opening to politics; but the law and he did not go well in harness together, and he soon gave up the study of it. This was a misfortune in after life, for in a country like this, where the powers of government are so strictly separated and so definitely prescribed in written constitutions, and so completely dominated by judicial construction, a legal training is well-nigh indispensable to the successful statesman. Nobody needed the discipline of legal study and habitude more than Blaine, as a corrective of his defects in education.

Blaine had an early literary tendency and a good facility of expression. These brought him at length to his open door. He knew almost everything of current interest on the surface, and he could talk about a thing effectively beyond his real knowledge of it. Journalism had a freer hand than the law, and to journalism he took. In 1854 he became editor of the "Kennebec Journal," a well-established and influential country weekly in Maine, and his success in conducting this little newspaper during an exciting and transitional period of national politics obtained him the editorship of the "Portland Advertiser," which became the leading Republican organ of the state, on the formation of that party. He was a good, forceful and ready writer, and as brilliancy and point are often more important to a political organ than accuracy or depth of statement, he was completely in his element. But from the beginning, journalism had been only the intended stepping-stone to politics, and in 1858 his real ambition received its first gratification by his election as chairman of the Republican state committee, which position he held for twenty years. He was also elected to the legislature, in which he served four years and became Speaker of the house. He was now one of the party leaders in the state, with some influence in the distribution of the Federal patronage that fell to the party on Lincoln's accession, but he was as yet overshadowed by Hamlin, Fessenden and Morrill. He had, however, begun to show that audacity which so often served him in place of renown or established authority, and already there were young politicians disposed to attach their affections and fortunes to him, and to have no other political creed or principle than "Blaine, of Maine."

In 1863 Mr. Blaine entered the national House of Representatives. He was alert, energetic and persistent in getting government contracts, army appointments and promotions and civil patronage of the abundant kinds then available, for his constituents, and his personal strength and popularity at home grew immensely. His eye was now, as his heart had already been, on the presidency, and he fervidly pursued his object of becoming the first man in Maine, in order that he might become the first man in the United States. On the

floor of the House he was aggressive toward the yet unsuppressed rebellion, and also toward some men, whose prominence or ambition might bar his way, and toward others, a bout with whom might increase his fame. He had chosen his part as a tribune of the people, and was at all times on the lookout for chances to play the character.

In the Congress of 1865 reappeared Roscoe Conkling, who had been shut out from the Congress to which Blaine first had come, by the Democratic triumph of 1862 in New York. Conkling was as ambitious in politics as Blaine, was an abler and more experienced man and had a larger and more politically useful state behind him. The two men were nearly of the same age, but were of directly opposite temperaments and had lived in wholly different atmospheres. Conkling was arrogant and patronizing; Blaine affable and cajoling. The two became political rivals and personal antagonists, almost at sight. Conkling did not conceal his contempt for Blaine as a charlatan, nor Blaine his ridicule for Conkling as an upstart. Each was a forceful man in his way, and insensibly a great majority of the members of the House became ranged, in sympathy, on one side or the other. Conkling was by nature cool, and Blaine as naturally impetuous; the former too proud to be likely to provoke a quarrel, the latter too restless to let pass an opportunity for a quarrel.

In the session of 1866, Conkling moved to strike out of the bill to reorganize the army, a provision for perpetuating the office of provost-marshal general. The office was an unnecessary one in time of peace, but the military committee had thought proper to retain it, in order to give the regular army officer who had ably conducted it, the benefit of his temporarily increased rank while winding up its affairs during the next few years. Against that officer, Conkling had a personal resentment, growing out of Conkling's appearance as an advocate for some persons held to service under the draft, during the time that he was out of Congress. This was known to sundry members of the House who were friendly to the officer, but was not publicly alluded to by them in the debate. Blaine, however, mentioned and enlarged upon it, and, in his rash way, made it the subject of an attack upon Conkling's personal character and motives such as no human being could ever forget or forgive. Evidently, Blaine had decided to have his detested rival as an open enemy rather than a secret foe, for he proceeded from Conkling's conduct and motive to his personal appearance and manner, touching off his vanity and arrogance, and ending with an illustrative caricature of what he termed Conkling's "turkey-gobbler strut." The joys of the debate rested with Blaine, but the House voted with Conkling. As



the latter soon afterward passed to the Senate, each was relieved of the other's hated presence.

Blaine sided with his party, and usually with the extreme contingent of it, in the heated struggle between Congress and President Johnson over reconstruction, the Freedmen's Bureau and civil rights for negroes, and, generally, the extension of Federal as against state jurisdiction. He was for the widest construction of the Constitution, the most active exercise of Federal powers, and liberal appropriations of national revenue to internal improvements and for mail subsidies to American steamship lines. This attitude, conspicuously displayed, brought him many and powerful friends, for the great war expenditures from 1861 to 1865 had created a large and interested class favorable to government activity and profuseness, and enough of the war taxes had been retained to produce an abundant revenue.

At the March session of 1869, coincident with the accession of Grant to the presidency, Blaine was elected Speaker of the House in succession to Colfax, who had become Vice-president. This office he held for six years and administered it very successfully, being firm yet patient, fair and courteous to the minority, and showing himself an adept in parliamentary law and usage. His enemy, Conkling, had become political conscience-keeper to President Grant, but that troubled Blaine very little, as the latter's power and position as Speaker, and his hold upon the House of Representatives, made it impossible for the administration to snub or ignore him. He was also much stronger with the people than Conkling.

The Congressional and state elections in the autumn of 1874 resulted in an opposition majority in the House, and Blaine left the Speaker's chair to lead a Republican minority on the floor. Somebody had put the notion in President Grant's head that the public-school system was in danger from Roman Catholic influence. Blaine took the matter up, as one likely to be popular, and carried through the House a constitutional amendment, prohibiting the states from appropriating public money to sectarian purposes.

For the succession to Grant in 1877, the leading Republican candidates were Conkling, the first choice of the administration, Morton, of Indiana, its second choice, and Blaine, who was stronger with the rank and file of the party than the two others combined. There had been a serious intention on the part of the office-holding element of the party to nominate Grant for a third term, and Grant played with the idea long enough to endanger the election of any Republican successor to himself, before giving it up in the face of a most emphatic popular disapproval. The nomination at the Republican convention, which was to be held at Cincinnati, June 14, 1876, then

seemed assured to Blaine. As leader of the minority he had, after his unrestrained fashion, used much bitter language toward the Democrats, calling the Southern contingent of that party in the House "the Confederate Brigadiers." But they did not resent this, considering that it was done for political effect, and his personal and social relations with them were all the time most cordial.

Blaine was but little past his forty-sixth year, but the pace at which he had followed politics, the Democratic landslide of 1874, Grant's dalliance with the third term project, Conkling's adverse control of the vast power of the administration, and the excitement incident to the near approach of the Republican national convention, had told on his originally strong constitution. On Sunday, June 11, he was taken ill in the street at Washington, while on his way to church. His friends at the convention, which was about to meet, were advised that his prostration was only a passing effect of the heat, but in fact it was a case of nervous prostration, and he was never quite his old self again.

The nominating speech for Blaine fell to Robert G. Ingersoll, the aggressive agnostic, and a devoted friend, and though Blaine would have wished it otherwise, he was too chivalrous to interfere. Ingersoll was a rhetorician, and gave the delegates and the audience their full measure of intellectual entertainment. His comparison of Blaine with the Plumed Knight of Navarre caught the popular ear and gave to the "Man from Maine" a name that clung to him throughout the remainder of his life. A vote of three hundred and seventy-nine was necessary to a nomination, and Blaine's highest vote was twenty-eight short of that number. Nobody else was seemingly in the running, but the field was stronger than Blaine, and when the fifth ballot showed that Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, was the destined "dark horse," Blaine sent him a congratulatory telegram which made his nomination sure.

In 1877 Blaine went to the Senate, which was still a very sedate body, dominated by Edmunds, of Vermont, and Thurman, of Ohio, leaders of the two opposing parties, and the most inseparable of personal friends. His rôle there was that of the "bull in the china shop." He flouted Edmunds and Thurman, the great jurists of the Senate, and carried the Senate against them, partly by his audacity and personal charm, and partly by the joy of the other members at having found one who was not afraid to measure swords with the veteran leaders.

While President Hayes was carrying on an honest, uneventful administration, General Grant was touring the world under a prearranged etiquette that put him on a footing with royalty wherever he



appeared. He saw and learned so much that he longed for another term at the White House, to show the Americans what blessings an instructed President could confer on them. Conkling organized and Don Cameron managed a phalanx of three hundred and six delegates to the Republican convention in 1880, sacredly pledged to vote for Grant, from the first ballot to the last. As three hundred and seventy-eight votes would be necessary to a choice, this meant Grant or a dark horse, and was fatal to Blaine, the leading legitimate candidate, who, by reason of the votes which were sealed to Grant, was nearly a hundred votes short on his best estimate. With Grant out of the way, Blaine could have won on the first ballot with votes to spare; but Conkling was there with his "turkey-gobbler strut," and was biting his thumb at Blaine and enjoying a sure revenge. All that Blaine could do was to join hands with John Sherman, his chief but not dangerous competitor, and hurriedly throw their united strength to Garfield, the manager for Sherman at the convention.

Conkling had been unable to nominate Grant, but he would be able to defeat Garfield, and let the election go to the Democrats, by ostentatiously showing an indifference toward the Republican candidate. This course was adopted, and the consequences in time became so alarming to the candidate and his friends that Garfield went to New York to beg Conkling to relent. But Conkling refused to meet Garfield personally, and authorized some of his subordinates to treat with him; and when the candidate had been sufficiently snubbed, and had given satisfactory assurance about the patronage in New York, he was sent back to Ohio. Conkling took the stump for the party, but ignored the candidate, and as the candidacy of Grant had been so thoroughly worked up before the meeting of the convention, it became necessary for Grant, himself, to tour the country as a campaign speaker, to overcome the sullenness of his disappointed adherents.

Blaine accepted the office of Secretary of State under Garfield, which meant that his own further candidacy would probably have to be postponed till 1888, when he would be more than fifty-eight years old. Yet it was a gain to him, as it would give him the patronage of the administration for 1884, if Garfield should then fail of a re-nomination. Meanwhile, it would enable him to do something for his friends, left in a bad situation by his loss of the late nomination. He had a strong faction in New York State, and induced Garfield to recognize his following instead of Conkling's in the Federal appointments. Conkling went to the President and protested against the breach of faith and the humiliation of himself as the party leader of his state. He got no satisfaction from the man he had so

recently humiliated, and thereupon resigned his seat in the Senate, intending to have the New York legislature immediately reelect him, and so compel Garfield to surrender. Blaine's friends, with the patronage in hand, proved too strong for Conkling, and though he stooped as never before, they emphasized his helplessness by electing another as his successor, and Conkling went smarting into private life. The projection of the Blaine-Conkling feud into Garfield's administration cost the President his life, at the hands of a half-crazy aspirant for a consulship, who attributed his failure to get what he wanted, to Garfield's disruption of the party. Arthur, who succeeded Garfield, naturally dispensed with Blaine's service in the Cabinet, and the latter, having nothing to do but wait, took to writing his political reminiscences and experiences in a book entitled "Twenty Years of Congress," at the same time keeping in touch with his party, with a view to securing its next nomination.

Arthur had made so good a President that there was a strong feeling throughout the ranks of the party that he ought to be his own successor. Though not compactly organized, the feeling would have probably sufficed to carry his nomination, except for the organized strength of Blaine, since neither Senator Sherman nor General Logan was within reaching distance of Arthur. Blaine led Arthur by only fifty-six and one-half votes on the first ballot, all other candidates being far distanced by the two real contestants. Up to the third ballot Arthur had lost only four votes; but Blaine had gained forty, and on the next ballot he was nominated. There was an outburst of enthusiasm at the convention, followed by a severe chill as soon as it had dispersed. The practical politicians who had carried through Blaine's nomination, had confessed to the probability of some little defection among the rebellious members of the party, but nothing to be compared to the force of the candidate's "magnetism," in bringing the rest of the vote out in full, to say nothing of the tens of thousands of Democratic votes that would be cast for him because he was "Blaine." But the revolt at once assumed such proportions as to convince Blaine that the fight of his life lay before him, and as the eyes of the disaffected Republicans were all turned toward Governor Cleveland, of New York, the Democrats made him their nominee.

That Blaine had, in the end, a fair chance of election, was due to his own efforts. He took the field in person and went from East to West, drawing immense crowds and arousing wild enthusiasm. Before giving up from sheer exhaustion, he had brought the canvass to a point where everything seemed to depend upon the size of the Irish vote he was going to take away from Cleveland in New York.



To show that Blaine had also the solid classes on his side, a banquet to him was given in New York City, but as the press reports insisted on treating it as the personal affair of Jay Gould, its result was rather harmful than otherwise. Finally, to show



that Blaine had the moral sentiment of the country with him, a deputation of clergymen, representing all denominations, was drawn together, to call upon him and make him an address. The speaking of the address—

which had been carefully framed to avoid offense to any class or denomination, and the tenor of which had been communicated to Blaine, that he might be prepared suitably to answer it—

was intrusted to an old retired Presbyterian minister. He delivered the address nicely, and was nicely answered, and Blaine was retiring gracefully and urbanely from his audience, when the old minister, fired by the presence of the reporters and chafed by the tameness of the words

that had been put into his mouth, suddenly roared out to the vanishing Blaine the one spontaneous speech of the occasion, which was that his opponent's candidacy stood for "Rum, Romanism and Rebellion." Blaine turned white and was dumb, and only less distressed than himself was the lone Catholic priest that had been enticed into the delegation, together with a Hebrew rabbi, to make it unanimous. The only happy people were the reporters, who had come for a ceremony and had found a sensation.

On learning that he had lost the presidency by a paltry plurality of one thousand one hundred and forty-nine votes in New York, the pent-up agony in Blaine's soul flamed out in a few words of concentrated rage and bitterness, in a public speech at his home in Maine. That his sun was set, everybody believed but himself. He was not stronger than Clay, and Clay had been unable to rally under circumstances like his own. Though his personal part in the campaign had been marvelous, experienced politicians felt that his high meridian had been reached four years before, when Conkling had floored him with Grant, and he had floored Grant with Garfield. He went back to the leisurely composition of his book; and he went also to Europe, where he was when the convention of 1888 met, before which he declined to be a candidate. He got back in time to take the stump for Harrison, who restored him to his old position as Sec-

retary of State. Here he became attached to the administrative and social circumstances of his place, and seemed happy.

As Blaine's health was visibly failing, it mattered less to him than it otherwise would, that Harrison kept his administration well in hand, and was master of his official household. Blaine's work was heavy, delicate and perplexing, and if his old-time rashness had been in play and could have played at will, he might easily have gotten beyond his depth. His official position caused him to look beyond the boundaries of the United States in viewing the industrial interests of the country, and he broke out against some of the provisions of the McKinley tariff bill, in a Senate committee room, smashing his white top hat by bringing it down violently on the table in his vehemence. The incident made a great flutter, and the tariff tinkers were hot against Blaine; but the country applauded him, and from the ranks of the Republicans went up the cry that Blaine was the only statesman left in the "grand old party." The smitten tariff bill was taken in for repairs, and it stayed in till it could come out with reciprocity provisions acceptable to Blaine, and which he put to immediate use. He was blacklisted by the other party leaders, but was strongest of all of them with the people, and when, in the congressional elections, a month after the act went into operation, the people nearly wiped the Republican representation in Congress out of existence, in resentment at the bill which Blaine had denounced, his star again was ascendant.

Intellectually and morally, this was Blaine's highest period in public life. All that was objectionable in the man of old had passed away, and the newer was in every way a larger and finer man. But his strength and health were in decline; domestic affliction had laid a heavy hand upon him; he was hesitating and procrastinating; the foreign envoys resorted to his house to transact their business, and accommodated their affairs to his increasing habits of lassitude and delay, and intimates reported him often despondent and sometimes fatalistic. That a presidential campaign in 1892 would have killed him seems now certain, but many anxious and longing eyes were turned his way till he spoke the final word that bound the party to a renomination of Harrison. On the very eve of the nominating convention he suddenly resigned, and became a willing though not a formal candidate. There were friendly votes enough to nominate him, but too many of them, by his own act, had been irrevocably pledged to Harrison. The vote he got was handsome, under the circumstances, but ineffectual. The hand of death was really upon him and this was the last flash of an impulsive and erratic life. He died at Washington on January 27, 1893.



BLANCHARD, THOMAS.—Born at Sutton, Mass., 1788; died at Boston, 1864. An American inventor of a machine for cutting and heading tacks by a single operation, and of a lathe for turning irregular forms.

BLAND, RICHARD PARKS.—(1835–1899.) An American statesman, born in Ohio County, Ky. He was admitted to the bar in 1860, and then settled in Lebanon, Mo. He was elected to Congress, a Democrat, in 1872. His term of office lasted until his death, with the exception of the years 1894–1896. He was an ardent and consistent bimetallist, and an opponent of the national banking system. He advocated an increase in the greenback circulation in 1872, and was a supporter of the silver act in 1877. This act was introduced by him, was modified by the senate, and vetoed by President Hayes. It was passed over his veto. It provided that the secretary of the treasury should coin not less than two million, or more than four million silver dollars each month. The dollars were to weigh  $412\frac{1}{2}$  grains of silver each. It was repealed by the Sherman act of 1890. Bland was a prominent candidate in 1896 for the Democratic nomination for President.

BLISS, CORNELIUS NEWTON.—An American merchant and statesman, born in Fall River, Mass., in 1833. He received a business training in New Orleans, Boston, and New York. He became head of the Bliss, Fabyan and Co. wholesale dry goods merchants. He was treasurer of the National Republican convention from 1892 to 1900. He declined the nomination for governor of N. Y. in 1885, and again in 1891. President McKinley appointed him secretary of the interior (1897–98).

BLONDIN (*blôn-d-an*), CHARLES (EMILE GRAVELE).—(1824–1897.) A famous French tight-rope performer, who crossed Niagara River several times on a taut rope.

BLUE, VICTOR.—A daring officer who volunteered as a scout, when Commodore Schley was endeavoring to locate the Spanish fleet under Admiral Cervera, which was believed to be in one of the Cuban ports. Lieut. Blue, in disguise, landed near Santiago, and ascertained to a certainty that the hostile fleet was in that harbor. The settlement of this question was of the highest importance. The U. S. battleships and cruisers, under the command of acting Rear-admiral Sampson, were at once assembled to establish a blockade. On July 3, 1898, Cervera's fleet issued from the harbor and was totally destroyed.

BOIES, HORACE.—An American lawyer and public man, born in Erie County, N. Y., in 1827. He was admitted to the bar in 1849. He served one term in the state legislature as a Whig (1858). He

became a Republican and removed to Waterloo, Iowa, in 1867. He left the Republican party on account of tariff and prohibition views. From 1890 to 1894 he was Democratic governor of Iowa—the only such since the formation of the Republican party. He ran second for the Democratic presidency nomination in 1896. He was an unsuccessful candidate for Congress in 1902.

"BOSTON, THE."—An armed cruiser of the seventh-rate, which was one of the fleet of Commodore Dewey, at the battle of Manila, May 1, 1898. She was launched in 1884 and has a tonnage of 3,035. She carries two 8-in.; six 6-in. Q.F.; and six 6-pdr. Q.F. guns. Her horse power is 4,200 and her speed 15.6 knots.

BOUTWELL, GEORGE SEWALL.—An American statesman born in Brookline, Mass., in 1818. He was a merchant of Groton until 1855. Then he was admitted to the bar in 1862. He was a Democratic member of the Mass. legislature for seven terms (1842–1851); governor of Massachusetts (1851–52); one of the organizers of the Republican party (1855); the first commissioner of the new Department of the Interior under appointment by President Lincoln (1862–63); member of Congress (1863–69); one of the seven managers of Andrew Johnson's impeachment; secretary of the treasury (1860–73); senator from Mass. (1873–77); president of the American Anti-Imperialist League since 1900.

BRADLEY, JOSEPH P.—(1813–1892.) An eminent American jurist born in Berne, New York. He graduated from Rutgers College in 1837 and was admitted to the bar in 1840. He became an associate justice of the supreme court of the United States by appointment from President Grant. He was one of the electoral commission in the Hayes-Tilden contest, and by his vote awarded the election to Hayes.

BREWER, DAVID JOSIAH.—Associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, under commission dated December 18, 1889. He was born in Smyrna, Asia Minor, in 1837, when his father was a missionary to Turkey. He graduated from Yale in 1856 and settled in Leavenworth, Kansas, to practise his profession. He has filled several prominent positions in his state. He succeeded Mr. Justice Stanley Matthews.

BRICE, CALVIN STEWARD.—(1845–1898.) An American statesman, born in Denmark, Ohio. He graduated from Miami University in 1863. He was in active service in the Civil War until 1865. He was admitted to the bar in 1866. In 1888 he was chairman of the national Democratic committee, and in 1889 was elected to the U. S. senate.



BRIDGEMAN, LAURA DEWEY.—Born at Hanover, N. H., 1829; died at South Boston, Mass., 1889. A blind deaf-mute, noted in connection with educational methods for unfortunates of her class. Through scarlet fever she lost sight and hearing and partially the sense of taste and smell, when three years of age. Eventually she became an inmate of the Blind Asylum at South Boston, where she was educated by means of a raised alphabet devised by the principal, Dr. S. G. Howe. (See HOWE, JULIA WARD.)

BRIGANDS CAPTURE AN AMERICAN CITIZEN.—On May 18, 1904, Ion Perdicaris, a naturalized American citizen, and his stepson, Cromwell Varley, were taken from their home by the brigand Rasouli and held for a large ransom. Mr. Perdicaris was born at the American consulate at Athens, Greece, where his father was consul-general in 1840. His American home is Trenton, N. J. He spent most of his time at Tangier, Morocco, where he built a palace, spent large sums on the sanitation of the city and entertained lavishly. Rasouli demanded a full pardon, the dismissal of the Pasha at Tangier, \$70,000 in cash, a large tract of territory as a principality. Instead of this the United States, aided by England and France filled the harbor with war vessels and Tangier with troops. The good offices of France were solicited. Secretary Hay demanded "Perdicaris alive or Rasouli dead" and the next day, June 24, the Sultan granted the demands of Rasouli and the captives were released.

"BROOKLYN, THE."—The flagship of Commodore Schley during the battle of Santiago. She is a cruiser and was launched in 1895. Her tonnage is 9,215 and her armor 8 inches extreme thickness. She carries eight 8-in.; twelve 5-in. Q.F.; and twelve 6-pdr. Q.F. guns. Her horse-power is 18,769 and her speed 21.9 knots.

BRODHEAD, JOHN ROMEYN.—(1814–1873.) An American historian, a native of Pennsylvania. He removed at an early age to New York. Here he devoted great attention to the early history of the state of New York. He was an officer of the American legation at the Hague, where he had excellent facilities for collecting and copying documents pertaining to the settlement of the Dutch in America. Over five thousand of these were collected and printed by the state and form the most reliable sources of information pertaining to that colonization and fill fourteen volumes. His "History of New York" covers the years 1609–1691, and is the recognized authority of that period.

BROTHERHOOD.—One of the numerous secret societies which were organized in the South after the Reconstruction acts were put in

force. The object was to prevent the exercise of political rights by negroes. Intimidation and terrorism were thoroughly organized and were chiefly directed against the agents of the Freedmen's Bureau, ministers, and school teachers, who were all regarded as public or private enemies. Special hatred was directed against the adventurers who came in quest of fortune from other states. These latter were called "carpet-baggers." The Brotherhood, with other societies with similar aims, was finally merged into the Ku-Klux Klan.

BROWN, BENJAMIN GRATZ.—Born at Lexington, Ky., 1826; died at St. Louis, Mo., 1885. An American politician and journalist. Was U. S. senator from Mo. (1863-67); governor of Mo. (1871-72); was the unsuccessful candidate of the Democrats and liberal Republicans for Vice-president in 1872.

BROWN, HENRY BILLINGS.—Associate justice of the United States Supreme Court under commission dated Dec. 23, 1890. He was born in South Lee, Mass., in 1836. He graduated from Yale in 1856, and was admitted to the bar of Wayne County, Mich., in 1860. He succeeded Mr. Justice Samuel F. Miller. He received the degree of LL.D. from the University of Michigan (1887), and from Yale (1891).

BROWNLOW, WILLIAM GANNAWAY (PARSON BROWNLOW).—Born in Wythe County, Va., 1805; died at Knoxville, Tenn., 1877. An American journalist and politician. In 1839 he became editor of the Knoxville "Whig," in which, although an advocate of slavery, he opposed secession. The paper was suppressed by the Confederate government in 1861. He was arrested for treason, but was released and sent inside the Union lines, Mar. 3, 1862. He was governor of Tenn. in 1865, and became U. S. senator in 1869.

BRUCE, BLANCHE KELSO.—(1841-1898.) A prominent American public man of negro descent, born a slave in Prince Edward County, Va. He settled in Mississippi and was elected a Republican U. S. senator in 1875. He has been a delegate to the national Republican convention very regularly since 1868. In 1881 President Garfield made him register of the treasury. He was one of the most eminent of his race.

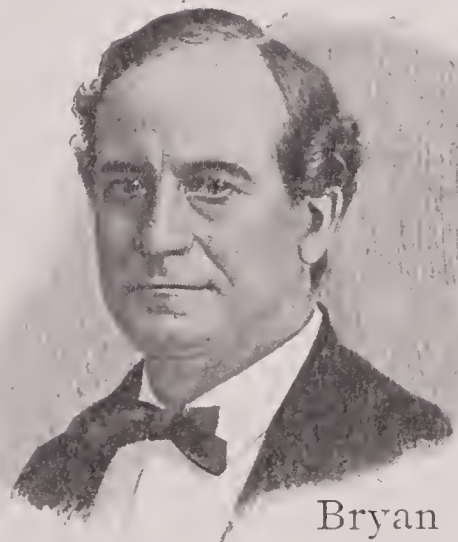


## WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN

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*Conspicuous for his devotion to a principle.*

MR. BRYAN has been called an "end-of-the-century Jefferson," and the limited comparison is not unfair to the founder of the Democratic party. Both were noted for the simplicity and the purity of their lives and their strong domestic attachments. Both were heartily in sympathy with the plain people and desirous to ennoble and uplift them. Each had a personal following that worshiped the man apart from his policies. Here the comparison ends and the antithesis begins. Jefferson created a party; Bryan disrupted it.



Jefferson favored national expansion, going, as he believed, outside of the Constitution to compass it, for the political and economical advantages that it afforded; Bryan opposed national expansion and the retention of the Philippines, secured to us by the Treaty of Paris, which he had helped to ratify. Jefferson's clear, philosophical mind made him a free thinker in religion; Bryan is deeply religious, and his favorite illustrations are drawn largely from the Bible.

Bryan has none of Jefferson's political finesse or fondness for metaphysical abstractions, but he held the masses of his party together through two fiercely contested campaigns, and he sought responsibilities, and even created them, with a courage that elicited the admiration of his opponents. In this he reminds one of that patron saint of Democracy, "Old Hickory" Jackson. Jefferson was not an orator, though gifted as a writer and essayist. Bryan has great oratorical powers, and as a debater he stands in the front rank of contemporary public men.

Nothing better illustrates the uncertainty of American politics than Bryan's nomination for the presidency in 1896. There were veteran Democrats who had hoped for this honor and had reason to expect it. Some of them were in line with all the economic and legal principles for which the party, as a party, was believed to stand, others favored principles less radical and more in keeping with Democratic traditions; but all were deeply rooted in Democratic faith and held the confidence of the delegates. Bryan had gone to Chicago, not as an announced candidate, but as a member of the Nebraska delega-

tion. His ringing speech on the third day swept the convention off its feet, and when adjournment was taken until evening, it was seen that a new candidate had risen, whose engaging personality and magnetic oratory might upset the plans of the ablest party leaders. When the convention reassembled, Bryan was put in nomination. His star rose steadily as the successive ballots were taken, and he was nominated on the fifth ballot, amid a whirlwind of enthusiasm. His speech, breathing defiance to the Republicans, who had declared in their platform for the gold standard, and ending with the inspiring words: "You shall not press down upon the brow of labor this crown of thorns; you shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold," undoubtedly brought him the nomination.

Bryan was no untried man when he faced the Democratic convention at Chicago and scored the greatest personal triumph in modern politics. He was only thirty-six, but his speeches in Congress, where he remained six years, had given him great prominence as a friend of silver. It was the tariff, however, that gave Bryan his first prominence in the House of Representatives. He was a free trader, and as such represented trans-Mississippi sentiment. The Democratic party, through its Southern and Western members, favored lower tariff duties, and Bryan was in thorough sympathy with his party. His first tariff speech in the House caused a sensation. It attracted no marked attention at the beginning, for he was a new member, and not much is expected of new men. But as he proceeded, it was seen that he had his subject well in hand, and was everywhere piercing the Republican armor of protection. This nettled the opposition, and they began to question him, more, perhaps, to embarrass him than to obtain a clearer elucidation of his views. To their surprise, Bryan answered them with great readiness. Other questions were answered with equal facility, and then came a fusillade of interruptions from a half dozen Republicans in quick succession. Not for a moment did Bryan betray anger or annoyance. He stood in the middle of the chamber, calm and smiling, apparently enjoying the contest more than his tormentors, some of whom were badly worsted in the encounter. As the giant Antæus, in his struggle with Hercules, gathered fresh strength from each contact with Mother Earth, so Bryan gathered fresh inspiration from Republican assaults. An inclination of the older Democrats to go to Bryan's rescue, was quickly checked when it was seen that he was master of the situation, and preferred to be let alone. The Democrats applauded Bryan's telling points, and it was plain that the Republicans themselves enjoyed them, for the House is typically American in its characteristics, and quick to recognize merit when-



ever and wherever found. And so the contest went on. When Bryan's time expired it was continued, and when it again expired it was again continued, until he had spoken the greater part of the afternoon. Then his party friends crowded about him and enthusiastically congratulated him upon his great success. The Republicans were no less cordial in their congratulations, for all had seen in the new member from Nebraska, qualities that commanded their admiration, and that would give him from that time a commanding position in the House.

The presidential campaign of 1896 was one of unusual interest and warmth. The Republicans nominated William McKinley, an Ohio protectionist of the extreme type, believing that the leading issue would be the tariff, and had placed him on a platform declaring for the gold standard. It was indeed a bold step, but that party had come to the parting of the ways and was in no mood for trifling. The time had passed for misleading utterances regarding the standard of value. It was certain that the Democrats would declare for free silver. The Republicans, largely from principle, and to some extent from policy, took the other horn of the dilemma, and announced that, until international bimetallism could be secured with the leading nations of the world, the existing gold standard should be maintained.

Then came the Democratic convention at Chicago and Bryan's magnetic speech and nomination. The platform, cleverly constructed to win the support of the discontented and unfortunate of all shades of political opinion, fell like a wet blanket on the Eastern Democrats, but met with surprising responsiveness in the Middle West, the Rocky Mountain country, and the South. Its essential features were a declaration for free coinage, and a denunciation of the Federal judiciary for its injunction proceedings against the lawless railway rioters. It assured to Bryan the unanimous support of the Populists, a notably strong organization holding the balance of power in many Western states, and in the silver Republican states beyond the Mississippi, extending to the Pacific coast. Several hundred delegates protested vainly against a declaration of principles so contrary to sound business policy, but they were overborne and many of them withdrew from the convention. The platform and the man looked for a time to be invincible, and the reason was not hard to find.

There was great suffering and distress over all the country, not alone in the commercial and manufacturing communities, but among the agriculturists. The price of farm products had gradually declined, and farmers were told that the decline was caused by the demonetization of silver. "Open the mines to the free coinage of silver, restore silver to its place as a money metal, and there will be

a revival of prosperity such as we have not seen since the flush days of the Civil War." So spoke the silver mine owner and his representatives in Congress. So spoke the politician, quick to see that "Sixteen to one" was a catchy phrase, and eager to ride into power on the popular wave of enthusiasm created by it. It came to the debt-ridden farmer and the idle workingman like a ray of sunshine out of a night of gloom and despair, bringing with it the hope and promise of better things. Wheat was sixty cents a bushel, corn a drug on the market, and interest rates for money ranged from eight to fourteen per cent per annum. It can surprise no one that under such circumstances the farmer should be discontented and lend a willing ear to the siren song of free coinage.

As the campaign progressed, Bryan developed in the West a strength that bade fair to be overwhelming. East of the Alleghanies he was weak, by reason of the wholly different views on the silver question which there prevailed. Impressed with what he considered the justice of his cause, and desirous to challenge his opponents on their own ground, Bryan journeyed to New York, the very heart of the "enemy's country," and on August 12, addressed an immense audience at Madison Square Garden. The trip from Nebraska had been a continuous ovation, and he had reason to believe that the body of the people, without regard to state lines, were in sympathy with him. He could have had in Colorado, the home of free-silver agitation, no more enthusiastic reception than that which awaited him in New York. Great crowds gathered about Madison Square Garden long before the doors were opened, and when the interior of the building was filled as it had been filled few times in its history, those who were outside demanding admission seemed in no way diminished in number. Such a reception would have quickened the pulse of a less emotional man than Bryan, and for Bryan it was the proudest day of his life. It was a hopeful sign of victory, and of new triumphs where they had not been expected. Bryan's speech, although it pleased the masses, could not stand the test of careful analysis, and it destroyed his last hope of carrying New York. It frightened conservative Democrats into the ranks of the opposition.

So far as the East was concerned, Bryan's enthusiastic reception in New York caused the Republican managers no alarm. Eastern sentiment was overwhelmingly for "sound money," and Bryan's "dash into the enemy's country" had deepened the opposition to him. The furore that he created was properly regarded as an incident of the campaign, largely due to curiosity, and not as an expression of popular approval, either of the man or of his policies. Bryan doubtless put his own interpretation upon his reception, but as time



passed it became apparent even to him that the East was hopelessly lost. Both parties transferred the fight beyond the Alleghanies, and Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota and Kansas, and the border States of Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia and Kentucky, became the theater of the most fiercely contested campaign in the history of American politics. It was known in the annals of the time as a "whirlwind" campaign, and no word better describes it. Bryan visited every "doubtful" state, speaking frequently a dozen times a day. His largely attended meetings and the enthusiasm created by his presence gave to his tour a fictitious importance. It was obvious that the crowds he addressed were largely composed of Republicans, or of Democrats who would not support him, but Bryan's managers were not so impressed, and they believed that the great outpouring of people foreshadowed his election. Had his party been united, Bryan would have won. But it was not united, and nearly a million Democrats withdrew from it on the money question alone. The great corporate interests—the banks, the railways, the insurance companies—and all the "protected" interests threw the weight of their influence into the Republican scale and Bryan went down to defeat.

Bryan sounded the keynote of the next campaign in an announcement made public two days after the election, in which he said that the friends of bimetallism had not been vanquished, but had simply been overcome; that they believed the gold standard to be a conspiracy of the money changers against the welfare of the human race, and that they should continue their warfare against it.

During the war with Spain, Mr. Bryan showed his patriotism by offering his services in a military capacity. He was commissioned colonel of a regiment of Nebraska volunteers, and was for several weeks in one of the camps of instruction. But only a few of the volunteers had any opportunity for active service, as the war ended with the surrender of the Spanish force at Santiago, and Colonel Bryan laid aside his regimentals and returned to civil life.

The presidential campaign of 1900 was in the main a repetition of that of 1896, with the same candidates and substantially the same platforms. For just one moment Bryan reached the exalted height of a true statesman, in his acceptance speech at Indianapolis, where he spoke with an eloquence, a gravity, and a dignity, with a comprehension of high politics and a sense of responsibility, that led serious men to believe that he had found himself at last. But the impression passed with his speedy relapse, and the Indianapolis speech, upon which his fame as a public man must ultimately rest, became a mere flashing glimpse of what might have been. Theo-

dore Roosevelt, the Republican vice-presidential candidate, was billed for a Rough Rider, cowboy national tour in the interest of his party, and fearful of inroads upon the emotional, unthinking crowd that Bryan had in mind whenever he spoke of the free and sovereign people, the latter went upon another whirlwind tour as an offset to Roosevelt, in which he made a record-breaking score for physical and vocal endurance.

At the election in November, 1900, Bryan was for the second time defeated by McKinley. The verdict of the people, as expressed by the popular vote and the electoral vote, was even more emphatic than in 1896. From his pleasant home at Lincoln, Nebraska, the greatest modern challenger of the intrenched Republican party continues in "The Commoner," a newspaper established by him, his fight for "the people's money," and his warfare upon the gold standard, the national banking system, the monopoly tariff, the trusts and combinations, the imperialism that reached out to exploit wealth from distant peoples while holding them by military force. All these, he argues, are abuses of political and monetary power that tend to put the "common people," as President Lincoln termed them, beneath the feet of privilege. Mr. Bryan's two defeats did not cast a shadow upon his personal life and character, the purity and earnestness of which have commanded the admiration of the world. The great business judgment of the country condemns the financial policy of which he is the embodiment and exponent, and it was against this, and not against William Jennings Bryan, that a million members of his own party cast their votes.

BUCKNER, SIMON BOLIVAR.—An American soldier and statesman, born in Kentucky, in 1823. He graduated from West Point (1844); was professor there (1845-55). He was in the Mexican War from 1846 to 1848, and, after being wounded in Churubusco, was made captain. He joined the Confederate army and became lieutenant-general. He surrendered to General Grant at Fort Donelson in 1862 with 16,000 men. He was imprisoned in Boston Harbor. After his exchange he resumed activity in the war until his final surrender to Canby at Baton Rouge. He was governor of Kentucky (1887-91); and was nominated for the vice-presidency, along with Senator Palmer, by the Gold Democrats at Indianapolis (1896).

BURCHARD, SAMUEL DICKINSON.—Born at Steuben, N. Y., 1812; died at Saratoga, N. Y., 1891. An American Presbyterian clergyman who gained notoriety in the presidential canvass of 1884 by the alliterative expressions, "rum, Romanism, and rebellion," used in a speech on Oct. 29, when with a large company of clergymen, he made



a call on James G. Blaine, the Republican candidate for the presidency, at the Fifth Avenue Hotel, New York City. It was made the most of in Roman Catholic circles by the Democratic managers.

BURLINGAME, ANSON.—Born at New Berlin, N. Y., 1820; died at St. Petersburg, Russia, 1870. An American diplomatist and politician. Was representative to Congress from Mass. (1855–61), ambassador to China (1861–67), and negotiated, as special ambassador from China, several treaties with the U. S., England, Denmark, Sweden, Holland, and Prussia.

CABINET.—In the U. S. the term refers to the heads of the eight executive departments of the government, who confer with and advise the President on subjects of administrative policy. The Constitution does not provide for a Cabinet, but it empowers the President to “require the opinion in writing of the principal officer in each of the executive departments upon any subject relating to the duties of their administrative offices.” Collectively, these heads of departments have long been known as the Cabinet, and all Presidents have sought their counsel. For many administrations, Presidents and their advisers have held regular and frequent meetings, and the Cabinet ranks as an essential part of the government. A law passed in 1886 designates the members of the Cabinet to fill the executive office in the order named in the act, in case of the death of the President and the Vice-president. In all English-speaking countries the word cabinet has now substantially the same meaning as in the U. S. (See PRESIDENTIAL SUCCESSION.)

CABINET COUNCIL.—A meeting for private counsel and deliberation on public affairs, by a select body of Cabinet ministers and confidential counselors. In the United States, the President’s Cabinet consists of the secretary of state, the five other secretaries or chiefs of departments of the Federal Government, together with the attorney-general and the postmaster-general, each of whom receives a salary of \$8,000 a year. It includes, as a matter of course also, the President and Vice-president. In England, the Cabinet consists of 20, or so, of the King’s chief ministers, including the prime minister, who calls the council together.

CADET.—Strictly speaking, the younger or youngest son; but as ordinarily used in the U. S., an appointee to the Military Academy at West Point or the Naval Academy at Annapolis. Each of the Congressional districts, the territories and the District of Columbia is entitled to one cadet yearly at each of the academies, and there are ten appointments at large to each of the institutions. These ten appointments, and those from the District of Columbia, are made by the President. The others are made nominally by the secretary of war and the secretary of the navy, respectively, but really by the

representatives in Congress and the territorial delegates, except when candidates for the cadetships are not nominated by July 1, in which case the heads of departments named actually make the appointments. The persons chosen must be residents of the districts or territories from which the appointments are made, and must pledge themselves to serve the government for eight years after graduation, unless previously discharged.

CAHENSLEY AGITATION, THE.—So called from a memorial drawn up in 1891 by Herr Cahensley and other Europeans and addressed to the Vatican, soliciting the Pope to appoint bishops and priests of their own nationality to minister to Roman Catholic immigrants in the U. S.

CAMERON, JAMES DONALD.—Born at Middletown, Pa., 1833. A politician. Was president of the Northern Central R. R. Co., of Pa. (1863-74); was secretary of war in President Grant's Cabinet (1876-77); United States senator (1877-80).

CAMERON, SIMON.—(1799-1889.) An American statesman, born in Lancaster, Pa. He began life as a printer and newspaper publisher, and was elected to the senate as a Democrat in 1845. He joined the new Republican party in 1856 and was re-elected to the senate. He was secretary of war under Lincoln and advocated the arming of fugitive slaves. He was minister to Russia in 1862 for a few months, and, on his return, was again elected to the senate. He held office until 1877, when he resigned in favor of his son. He exercised such power in state politics that he was known as the "Czar of Pennsylvania."

CANNON, JOSEPH G.—Speaker of Congress (1903). He was born at Guilford, N. C., 1836. From 1861 to 1868 he was state's attorney in Illinois. His home is at Danville, Ill. He has sat in fifteen Congresses, from the Forty-third to the Fifty-eighth inclusive, with the single exception of the Fifty-second. He was elected speaker in 1903 to succeed D. B. Henderson, of Iowa.

CARLISLE, JOHN GRIFFIN.—An American statesman, born in Campbell County, Ky., in 1835. After teaching for a few years he was admitted to the bar in 1858, and was elected to the state legislature in 1859. After two terms in the state senate, he was lieutenant-governor of Kentucky (1871) for four years. He was elected to Congress (1877), and was speaker from 1883 to 1889. He was elected to the senate (1893); and was secretary of the treasury in Cleveland's second term. He supported Senator Palmer for President in 1896.

CARSON, CHRISTOPHER ("KIT" CARSON).—(1809-1868.) An American soldier, guide, trapper, and Indian agent in New Mexico.

CAUCUS.—An assemblage of political partisans to name candidates or agree upon plans of campaign or legislation. Though they originated in this country, caucuses are now held in England and else-



where. The first caucus of which we have any record was held in Boston, early in the 18th century, and is said to have derived its name from the gatherings of the ship calkers. From this small beginning, the custom grew until in the early days of the Federal Government the Congressional meetings that nominated candidates for the presidency and vice-presidency were known as caucuses. In 1828 the nominees for these offices were chosen by state legislatures and in 1831 the existing system of nominating by conventions was adopted. Caucuses of members of Congress representing the different parties in that body are now often held, to deliberate upon proposed measures and determine upon courses of action.

CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION.—Held at Philadelphia, 1876, in celebration of the hundredth anniversary of American independence. It was international in character, and was continued about six months.

CHANDLER, WILLIAM EATON.—An American statesman, born in Concord, N. H., in 1835. After graduation from Harvard Law School in 1855, and seven years' service in the local legislature, he was elected speaker (1863–64). He was first assistant secretary of the treasury, secretary of the Republican national committee (1868–76); nominated solicitor-general of the United States (1885) but the senate refused to confirm the appointment; secretary of the navy (1882–85); and United States senator (1887–1901). He was president of the Spanish Claims Commission since 1901.

CHANDLER, ZACHARIAH.—Born at Bedford, N. H., 1813; died at Chicago, 1879. An American politician. He was U. S. senator from Michigan (1857–75), and secretary of the interior (1875–77). He was one of the most uncompromising opponents of slavery before the Civil War.

CHARGÉ D'AFFAIRES.—An inferior diplomatic agent, accredited not to a court but only to the minister of foreign affairs, and holding his credentials from the same official in his own country. He usually acts while the ambassador is on leave.

CHARTER.—The name applied to a grant of land or of special privileges, made by a government or ruler to a company—a body of men, or an individual, for a term of years. In American law, a charter is a written grant from the sovereign power conferring rights or privileges upon a municipality or other corporation. The term is generally applied to the letters patent or articles of association sanctioned by statute creating a corporation, as a city, college, stock company, benevolent society, or social club. In the early history of America, European rulers, claiming sovereignty by right of discovery, issued charters granting land for colonization, such as the charters of the Virginia Company, Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, etc.

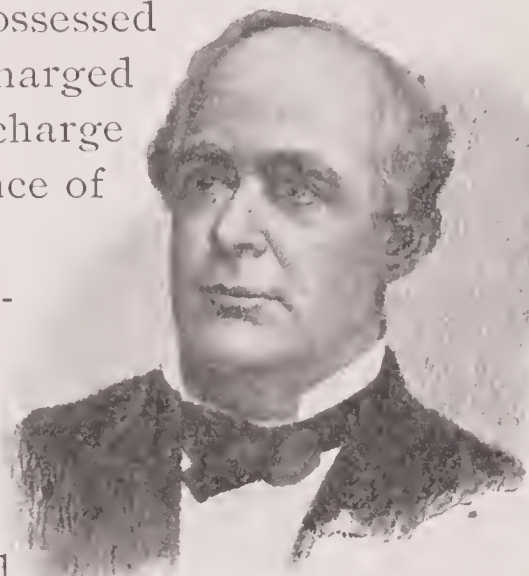
## SALMON PORTLAND CHASE

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*He had to do with billions of dollars.*

WHEN President Lincoln formed his Cabinet, in the midst of the secession movement caused by his election, there were two members of it who at that time stood so much higher in public knowledge and estimation than himself, that nothing but grave considerations could have warranted him in asking them to take office under him, or could have induced them to accept. Those two were Seward and Chase. The considerations that brought them in were indeed grave, both in a political and in a national sense. A new party, formed from diverse elements, and possessed thus far of more fervor than unity, had become charged with the responsibilities of administration; a serious charge at any time, but immeasurably serious in the presence of a dissolving nation.

Salmon Portland Chase was born in New Hampshire, in 1808, of a family in good position and circumstances. He was well educated, and before his eighteenth year had graduated with distinction at Dartmouth College. He went to Washington, where he tried the keeping of a classical school, and studied law under the distinguished William Wirt, who had been Attorney-general in the Cabinet of Monroe, and was one of the leaders at the bar of the Federal Supreme Court. Through the influence of a near relative, who was a member of the United States Senate, he sought to obtain a clerkship in the Treasury Department, but the senator declined to share in spoiling his future by aiding him to a position that would the more unfit him for the real work of life the longer he should hold it, and from which he would probably be removed on some change of administration, when too late to repair the mischief caused by office-holding enervation and loss of time. "Go West, young man," said this precursor of Horace Greeley, and the young man went to Ohio. There he made his standing good as a lawyer by a compilation of the statutes of the state, a work for which his scholarship well fitted him; while his uncompromising hostility to slavery, and the frequency of his voluntary appearance as advocate for fugitive slaves whose return to bondage was sought or opposed in the courts, early made him prominent in politics.





Chase was a member of an antislavery convention held at Columbus in 1841, and in 1843 he was a delegate to the national convention of the Liberty party at Buffalo, which nominated James G. Birney for the presidency, and which, by casting nearly sixteen thousand votes in New York, threw the electoral vote of that state to Polk and so defeated Clay. The rage of the Whigs at this surprising upset of their party and its idol was extreme, and nowhere was it more extremely expressed than by Mr. Greeley in the "Tribune," which charged the Liberty party with being allies of the Democracy, and drove many of them into fellowship with that party in state affairs, Chase among them. Birney had taken eight thousand votes away from Clay in Ohio, but left him enough to get the electoral vote of the state. The platform of the Liberty convention, in the framing of which Chase had been influential, was very radical for those days, and yet it commanded upward of sixty-two thousand votes. It shows where Chase stood, eighteen years before he became a Cabinet minister, and when he was a comparatively young zealot of thirty-five years. It declared "human brotherhood" to be the cardinal principle of Democracy and of pure Christianity; intimated that the Democratic and Whig parties were both run by "interested politicians"; denounced slavery as "the grossest and most revolting manifestation of despotism," and the existing parties for their subserviency to the slavery interest; gave the Federal Constitution a severe mauling for permitting three-fifths of the slaves to be counted in the congressional representation of the slave states, and for authorizing the surrender of fugitive slaves; and announced the purpose of the Liberty party to carry the principle of equality to its ultimate conclusion in all legal and political relations, after slavery had been everywhere suppressed. There was a good deal of religion in the platform, and this, if not due to Chase, was characteristic of him; for if not theological, he was always ecclesiastical, and in aspect and temperament was cut out originally for a Protestant Episcopal bishop, like his distinguished uncle.

Chase was a member of the national Liberty party convention which met at New York, in 1847, and nominated John P. Hale, of New Hampshire, for President, with a vice-presidential candidate from Ohio, as before. Later, when a rebellious element of the Democracy had nominated Van Buren against Cass, the regular Democratic nominee, Hale withdrew, virtually in favor of Van Buren, who was at least a sentimental Abolitionist, and had a considerable Democratic following. But the Ohio Abolitionists, Chase among them, were dissatisfied with the situation and agitated for a new convention, which was held at Buffalo, in August, 1848, and nominated Van

Buren and Charles Francis Adams. The platform, in which the able hand and pen of Chase were busy, was more practical than before, but it was still religious and still radical. It declared the convention to be "a union of freemen for the sake of freedom"; had something to say about "free labor"; inscribed on its banner the motto of "Free Soil, Free Speech, Free Labor and Free Men," and announced the determination to "fight on and fight ever" until the day of triumph. Van Buren, who privately laughed at the platform and derided the political principles it set forth, accepted the nomination and so defeated Cass, chief of Northern doughfaces, and brought Zachary Taylor to the presidency.

Chase, the ingrained Abolitionist,—who sincerely believed, as few active politicians believed, in fighting slavery from the bottom up within the Constitution, and where the Constitution failed, fighting it in the name of morality and religion,—was now the foremost man in Ohio. In 1849 he was sent to the United States Senate; in 1855 he was elected governor—a far greater honor then than a senatorship—and in 1857 was reelected by a majority still regarded as extraordinary in the political annals of the state. The Democrats were strong in Ohio, but they were Free-soil Democrats and supporters of Chase, and as a Free-soil Democrat he had figured in actual politics since his election to the Senate. Thus, though he had joined the new Republican party when the opponents of slavery had finally concentrated, and though, when Seward had been set aside in 1856 as still a Whig and not a Republican, Chase was the proper candidate of the party, he, also, was put aside in favor of Fremont, who had no discoverable politics, because it was feared that the former Whigs of Ohio would vote against Chase.

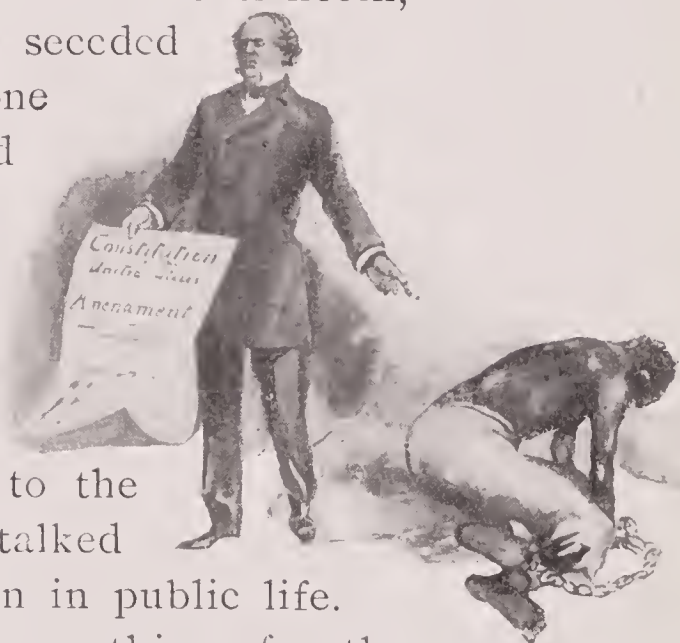
At the time Lincoln was elected, Chase was distinctively out for the presidency. The tide was then running against slavery, and neither Lincoln nor Seward could approach Chase's record for early, sincere, moral and religious opposition to the Southern institution. Lincoln and Seward had both looked to the final extinction of slavery, but sought only to put it where the public mind would rest in the assurance of its ultimate disappearance. Chase had been fighting slavery, hand to hand, for some thirty years, when he entered the Cabinet of Lincoln, and if he indulged the hope that it was his destiny to give the finishing stroke to it from the White House, that hope was not unpardonable. That he entered Lincoln's Cabinet from high motives is certain, and it was more important to Lincoln than to himself that he should be a member of the first Republican administration. Chase had not desired to be one of Lincoln's Cabinet, but Lincoln was anxious that he should, fearing to leave him



outside. Thus Chase entered the Cabinet in a state of independence, and that state he maintained. He had not believed that Lincoln should have a first term, nor did he ever come to believe that Lincoln should have a second term. There was no misunderstanding, at any time, about the position and the purpose of Chase. He satisfied a party exigency by entering the Cabinet, and he meant that his place in the Cabinet should forward his legitimate aspiration that the one original, pure and fighting Abolitionist should become the Abolition President. He could not foresee, at the time he closed with Lincoln's offer, that a great war would mark the period of his Cabinet service, and so make it certain that some popular general would stride to the White House, brushing statesmen and political leaders aside, as Jackson and Harrison and Taylor had already done, and as successors to them and to Grant will doubtless do hereafter.

When Chase took office at the head of the Treasury Department, the national expenditure was about eighty million dollars a year; it rose to more than five hundred millions in his first year, and to one thousand three hundred millions in his last. He took over the management of a public debt of eighty millions, and transferred to his successor a debt of one thousand seven hundred millions. His financial projects did not carry with Congress, whose projects were better than his own, though their performance, as must always be the case when a numerous legislature turns financier, was far below the original conception. One of Chase's early projects for a war revenue was a direct tax; but as, under the Constitution, a direct tax must be levied, not according to wealth, but by population, any such tax large enough to produce a substantial war revenue would fall crushingly upon poor states and lightly upon rich ones, Congress refused to entertain it. While he favored the issue of treasury notes—which is nothing more than a forced loan, compelling public creditors to accept a promise to pay instead of payment—he properly opposed the making of such notes a legal tender for the payment of antecedent private debts, as a violation of the contract made at the time the debt was incurred. But he yielded to the desire of Congress, saying that the legal tender notes would increase the loanable capital of the country, and so provide the government with the means of carrying on the war. But as these notes were issued only in payment of current expenses, they represented but a conversion and not an increase of capital. In the end, the war was carried on by loans, which enormously increased its expenses, and as loans flagged the great department under Chase became paralyzed, till an Ohio banker was tempted, by a large commission, to introduce financial sense to the financial business of the government.

Early in 1864, Grant came legitimately to the head of military affairs, without political connections and indebted to nobody, and thenceforward the conduct of the war passed from the White House and its cabinet room to the headquarters of the general-in-chief in the field. Lincoln accepted the new situation amiably, never knowing more of the plans and purposes of the actual dictator than the private in the ranks, and the rest of the administration did not count. Lincoln was openly yet modestly a candidate for reelection; but the conduct of the war from Washington, until the coming of Grant, had borne more severely on the North than on the South, and the Rev. Dr. Cheever, Lucius Robinson and John Cochrane, of New York; Wendell Phillips, of Massachusetts; B. Gratz Brown, of Missouri; and Frederick Douglass, of the United States at large, were but the bolder spirits of thousands of Republicans who desired a bolder President, that would be easier on the loyal states and harder on the disloyal ones. They desired that Congress, and not Lincoln, should prescribe the terms of readmission for the seceded states, and when they formulated their demands, one of them was that the lands of the disloyal should be confiscated and distributed to the Union soldiers and sailors. Most of the leaders of the radical movement were personal friends of Chase, and his course in the administration entitled him to their support; but again, as in 1856, they passed him over for Fremont, thus giving point to the gibe that Chase for the presidency had been more talked about, and less thought about, than any other man in public life.



The radical movement against Lincoln came to nothing, for the people in mass were with him, and Chase, undermined in the administration and the party, very properly resigned, having an immense respect for himself and not too much for those with whom he had been associated. After his reelection, Lincoln very generously recognized Chase's early services to the cause of freedom by offering him the place of chief-justice, which the beloved Stanton desired but could not have because Lincoln declared that he must have Stanton in his second administration.

As chief-justice, Chase presided at the impeachment trial of President Johnson, and presided well. In 1868 he was the favorite of the Southern delegations to the Democratic convention that nominated Horatio Seymour, of New York, but Pendleton was the choice of the Ohio delegates. On February 7, 1870, he delivered the opinion of the majority of the Supreme Court, consisting of Justices Nelson, Grier, Clifford and Field, with himself, against the validity of the



legal tender provision of the treasury note legislation; Justices Miller, Swayne and Davis dissenting. After this, Justices Strong and Bradley, whose soundness on the legal tender issue had been previously ascertained, were added to the court; the question of the legal tender was reopened on a new case, and the former decision was reversed. This time, Chase delivered the dissenting opinion of himself, Clifford, Field and Nelson. That the court had been used for political purposes, as in the Dred Scott decision of 1857, is certain, and in the later, as in the earlier, decision, there was much ill feeling among the judges, and the court was again deservedly lowered in the public confidence and esteem. At the same time, it is but fair to say that the question was much more fully presented at the later hearing, though it is hard for the lay mind to believe that a constitutional power to "coin money" includes the power to compel a creditor to accept from his debtor a mere promise to pay money, which Congress might never see fit to redeem. We owe to the later decision, procured by the addition of two "safe" judges, the green-back and free-silver crazes, which cost the country hundreds of millions of dollars. The incident is one of many going to show that the safety, honor and perpetuity of the republic rest, after all, upon the intelligence and integrity of the masses of its people, and not upon its rulers, when left to themselves.

Chase had been stricken with apoplexy before the legal tender decision was reversed, and the intervening agitation had left him the worse. He died at New York, May 7, 1873, one of many whose high qualities had been sacrificed to a consuming desire for the presidency.

CHINA, COMMERCIAL TREATY WITH.—The Senate ratified, on December 18, 1903, the new treaty between the United States and China. Not all of the concessions and privileges which the United States sought were granted. The only new ports opened were Mukden, the old capital of Manchuria, and Antung, a town on the Manchurian bank of the Yalu river. Only vessels of light draught can visit these towns. By the fourth article of the treaty, the Peking government agreed to abolish likin, a tax levied upon goods when taken into the interior of China. This tax was collected by officials at the inland towns to which the goods were sent and varied in amount according to the distance from the port. There was much dissatisfaction and irregularity over the collection. In place of likin the treaty provides that a sub-tax of one and a half times the import tax be paid at the port of entry on goods intended to go to the interior. Where the tariff duty has been five per cent. on goods intended for seaport towns, those consigned to the interior pay twelve and a half per cent.

CHINA, FIRST AMERICAN-BUILT RAILWAY.—This was opened on November 15, 1903. It runs from Canton to Fatshan, about ten miles up the river. It was built by the American China Development Company. It forms a part of over one thousand miles of road to be built by that company. The locomotive which drew the train was one of the little discarded New York City Elevated locomotives.

CHINESE IMMIGRATION.—By a treaty negotiated by Caleb Cushing in 1844, five Chinese ports were opened to American trade, and protection of life and property was guaranteed to American citizens. The Burlinghame treaty of 1868 allowed Chinese the right of emigration to the U. S. and promised them the same privileges, exemptions, and immunities respecting travel and residence that were enjoyed by Americans. The habits of life of the Chinese rendered them obnoxious to most Americans, and their rapidly increasing numbers began to cause considerable alarm. In 1879 a bill restricting their immigration passed Congress, but was vetoed by President Hayes. Several restrictive laws were made later, however. The Geary Act passed in 1892, provided that any Chinaman not lawfully entitled to remain in the U. S. should be removed to China, and that all Chinese laborers should, within a year, procure certificates of residence, under penalty of deportation. A law passed the next year modified this act. Under the laws passed in 1902 the immigration of Chinese is prohibited.

CHOATE, HON. J. H.—United States ambassador to Great Britain;



an eminent New York barrister; a fine speaker, and a man of great social and literary gifts.

CHURCH AND STATE.—The Constitution stipulates that Congress shall make no law respecting the establishment of any religion or prohibiting the free exercise thereof. There is no connection between State and Church here, as there is in Europe. Many of the Colonies early established as the official denomination the Episcopal Church, or Church of England, as it was more generally called, while Mass. and Conn. recognized and provided for the Congregational. R. I., Md., and Pa., almost from their establishment, guaranteed religious freedom, and the principle is affirmed in the Constitution of the U. S., which says, "no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the U. S."

CHURCH, SANFORD ELIAS.—Born at Milford, N. Y., 1815; died at Albion, N. Y., 1880. An American jurist and politician. He was lieutenant-governor of N. Y. (1851-54), and chief-justice of the state court of appeals (1871-80).

CIPHER DISPATCHES.—The telegraphic messages in cipher sent from and received by Democratic party workers in S. C., Ore., and Fla., while the result of the presidential election of 1876 was in doubt. Fraud was freely charged and the messages were ordered submitted to the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections. The "New York Tribune" published transcripts of many. Samuel J. Tilden, the Democratic candidate for the presidency, disavowed all knowledge of and responsibility for them.

CLARK, ALVAN.—Born at Ashfield, Mass., 1808; died at Cambridge, Mass., 1887. An American optician, famed for his great skill as a manufacturer of telescopes which are now used in most of the great observatories in the world.

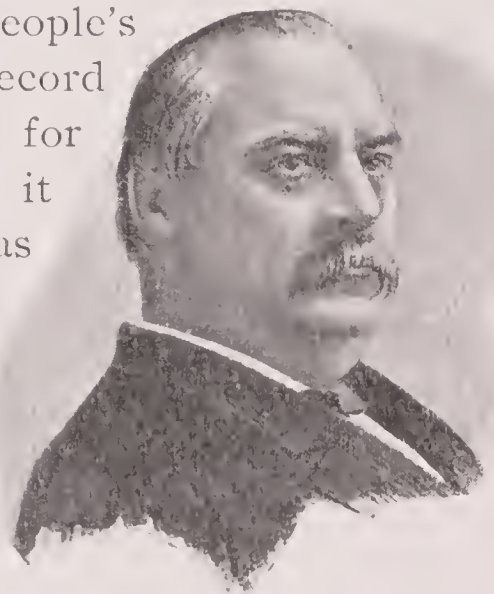
CLAY, CASSIUS MARCELLUS.—Born in Ky., 1810. Was the son of Gen. Green Clay and noted as an anti-slavery advocate. He was U. S. minister to Russia (1861-69). He died in August, 1903, at the advanced age of ninety-three. He was regarded as the most picturesque character of his age. His career may be summed up as editor, politician, duellist, author, and statesman. He was indomitably uncompromising and intractable all his days. He missed the laurel; but lived his life, fierce of late years, solitary and without a parallel. He left his estate of White Hall to the nation to be used as a park.

## GROVER CLEVELAND

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*A President who put his country above his party.*

GROVER CLEVELAND was three times a candidate for President. He was twice successful—in 1884 by defeating Blaine, and in 1892 Harrison, by whom he, himself, had been beaten in 1888. Cleveland came to the presidency at forty-seven, an age below the average of his predecessors. He brought to the White House a robust mentality, great capacity for hard work and a Jacksonian simplicity of manner. His jealous guardianship of the people's money while governor of New York and his previous record as the reform mayor of Buffalo, prepared the country for an honest and economical administration. Nor was it disappointed. Under him the civil service law was rigidly sustained and removals from office were, with few exceptions, made only for cause. The veto power was unsparingly used on legislation which he deemed extravagant or unwise, and when the Democratic party met in convention in 1888, he was unanimously renominated for a second term. His defeat by General Harrison was largely the result of his retaining Republicans in office—a proceeding that the politicians of his own party deeply resented—but was partly due to his unflinching recommendations to Congress for tariff reform legislation.



Five important events made Cleveland's administrations notable. These were his contest with the Senate over the right of removal from office; the passage of a tariff bill reducing duties on imports; the use of Federal troops to suppress the railway riots at Chicago; the order of Secretary Endicott returning Confederate battle-flags in the War Department to the states from whose regiments they had been captured; and his warlike recommendation to Congress for a commission to settle the boundary dispute between British Guiana and Venezuela. This trenchant message caused a financial panic on both sides of the ocean for the moment, but after the first burst of excitement in both countries, the situation became quiet, and eventually Lord Salisbury, the British premier, consented that the long-standing boundary dispute should be submitted to arbitration, and the incident then passed from the public mind.



Cleveland's rapid advance from the mayoralty of Buffalo to the governorship of New York and thence to the presidency, was due to a combination of fortuitous circumstances. He lived in a "doubtful" state, as a state is politically called that gives its vote first to one party and then to another. It was to be expected, therefore, that when the Democratic national convention met in 1884 it would not be unmindful of New York's thirty-six electoral votes and of the claims of Governor Cleveland, who had been elected a year previously by the largest majority ever given to a candidate for that office. In the middle of his term as governor, Cleveland became the choice of his party for President and was successful against James G. Blaine, in a campaign marked by unusual spirit on both sides. In his letter accepting the nomination, Mr. Cleveland took advanced ground for a reform of the civil service. He said:—

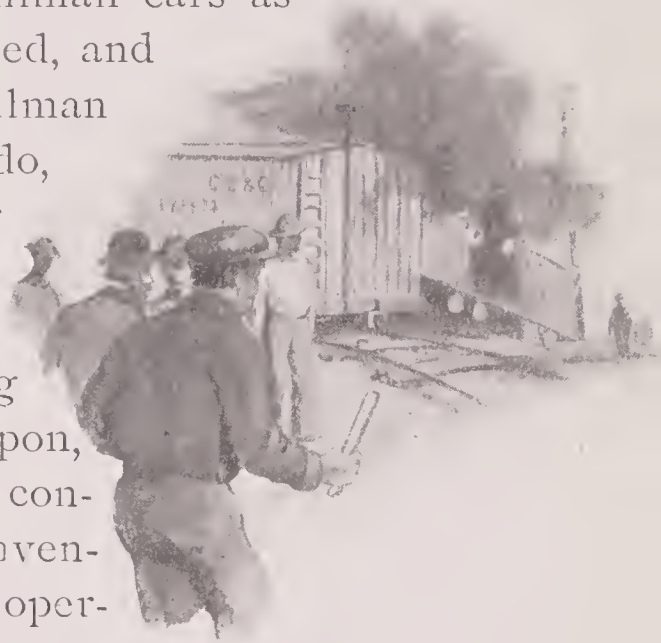
"The people pay the wages of the public employees, and they are entitled to the fair and honest work which the money thus paid should command. It is the duty of those intrusted with the management of their affairs to see that such public service is forthcoming. The selection and retention of subordinates in government employment should depend upon their ascertained fitness and the value of their work, and they should be neither expected nor allowed to do questionable party service. The interests of the people will be better protected; the estimate of public labor and duty will be immensely improved; public employment will be open to all who can demonstrate their fitness to enter it; the unseemly scramble for place under the government, with the consequent importunity which embitters official life, will cease; and the public departments will not be filled with those who conceive it to be their first duty to aid the party to which they owe their places, instead of rendering patient and honest return to the people."

These sentiments, Mr. Cleveland put into practical effect. "Offensive partisanship," a phrase made famous by himself, was punished with dismissal from office, but Republican clerks with good records were unmolested and in many cases were promoted by their Democratic superiors. An unexpected innovation was the rule, rigidly adhered to, of allowing Federal officeholders, such as district attorneys, collectors of customs, postmasters, and others, to serve out their terms of four years unless removed for cause. Disappointment, loud and deep, followed the actual observance of this announced policy. There was a great clamor for the old party doctrine, "To the victors belong the spoils," but Mr. Cleveland declined to recede from the position he had taken. He promised that changes should be made as terms expired, or on proof of partisan perversion of public office, and with this the politicians were forced to be content. His policy resulted

in no ultimate abridgment of Democratic privileges, for Cleveland's successors have followed the same rule, and have retained Democratic presidential appointees until their terms of service ended, except when removed for cause.

In May, 1895, some of the employees at the Pullman Car Works, Chicago, struck against a reduction of wages, declared by the company to be imperative by reason of unprofitable business. A deadlock ensued and the strikers applied to the American Railway Union, an organization of the lower grades of railway workers, for a sympathetic strike against the handling or hauling of Pullman cars as parts of railway trains. The application was granted, and railways were notified to drop the cars of the Pullman Company from their trains. This they declined to do, on the ground that the needs of their passenger traffic required the use of those cars, and that they had contracts with the company which they could not suddenly terminate or break, without becoming subject to heavy damages to the company. Thereupon, the members of the Union refused to handle trains containing Pullman cars. This caused delay and inconvenience for a few days, but the Pullman cars were operated. The Union then proceeded to the next customary step of declaring that nobody should handle the trains that they would not handle. The president of the Union, from his headquarters at a Chicago hotel, assumed control of the entire railway system of the United States. To relieve the public inconvenience and anxiety and the embarrassment of the general government, caused by the stoppage of the mails, he offered to permit mail cars to be handled and forwarded. But the government had not the equipment or plant for operating post-office railways, and the companies would not undertake to run trains of mail cars only.

The governor of Illinois was in sympathy with the sympathetic strike, and the local authorities, with no authority or force behind them, were either physically or politically afraid to act. For the time being, the municipal, state and national authorities at Chicago were held in abeyance, and all government, so far as railway operations were concerned, was vested in the president of the American Railway Union. Passengers passing from one state to another were halted indefinitely, goods in transit from one state to another could not be forwarded, and, though the railways were constitutional post roads, the mails could not travel upon them. These are all matters placed by the Constitution under the control and regulation of the Federal government.



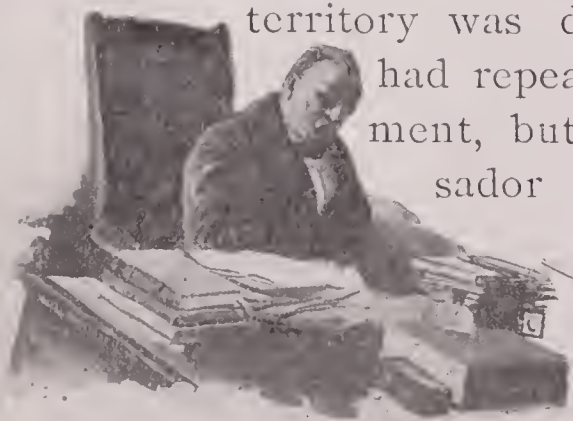


After waiting a reasonable time for the local or state authority to act, the law officers of the general government applied to the Federal courts, and obtained injunctions against interference with interstate commerce or the mails. These were derided by the mobs that were doing the actual work of interference, and the United States marshal had not command of the necessary physical force to execute the judicial decrees. No such defiance of the Federal government had been seen since the days of the Whisky Insurrection, suppressed by President Washington. Following that precedent, President Cleveland issued his proclamation, commanding the insurgents to disperse, and assembled a national military force large enough to give effect to the proclamation. Thereupon, the president of the American Railway Union gave way before the President of the American Federal Union, and peace and traffic were restored. Popular sentiment throughout the country emphatically manifested its approval of the Jacksonian vigor of Mr. Cleveland, but from that time, all the forces of disorder and demagogy, not weak in his own party, were openly against him, as they always were at heart.

Cleveland's "Venezuelan Message," as it is called, created a profound sensation, and brought the country closer to war with Great Britain than it had been since Captain Wilkes removed the Confederate commissioners, Mason and Slidell, from the British mail steamer "Trent." That war did not result from such a provocation, was due to the good feeling between the British and American peoples, outside of politics, and to the popular belief in England that President Cleveland meant nothing worse than a rude shaking of the slumberous British diplomacy, which had permitted the boundary question unjustly to drag for many years. The contention was of long standing, and grew out of the alleged encroachments of the inhabitants of British Guiana upon Venezuelan soil and sovereignty. The disputed territory was rich in minerals, principally gold and silver, and Venezuela's complaint was that the overflow into her territory was due to the existence of these deposits. Venezuela

had repeatedly urged arbitration as a proper method of settlement, but the British attitude was expressed by the Ambassador at Washington, Sir Julian Pauncefote, who stated that his government was as firmly convinced of its sovereignty over the territory in dispute as over the English counties of Sussex and Kent. Venezuela having requested the good offices of the

United States on repeated occasions, the American Ambassador at London, Mr. Bayard, was instructed to urge the British government to accept arbitration. Great Britain repeatedly refused,



and President Cleveland had made the dispute the subject of comment in two messages to Congress, but had advanced no suggestion as to the action this government should take. Convinced at last that Great Britain's encroachments were a violation of the Monroe Doctrine, President Cleveland, a little more than a year before his retirement from office, sent a special message to Congress, dealing with the Venezuelan question at length. His application of the Monroe Doctrine to the case in hand was admittedly novel, but he set it forth in broad and statesmanlike terms. The President asserted that the doctrine was strong and sound "because its enforcement is important to our peace and safety as a nation, and is essential to the integrity of our free institutions and the tranquil maintenance of our distinctive form of government. It was intended to apply to every stage of our national life and cannot become obsolete while our republic endures. If the balance of power is justly a cause for jealous anxiety among the governments of the old world and a subject for absolute non-interference, none the less is an observance of the Monroe Doctrine of vital concern to our people and their government. Assuming, therefore," he continued, "that we may properly insist upon this doctrine without regard to 'the state of things in which we live,' or any changed conditions here or elsewhere, it is not apparent why its application may not be invoked in the present controversy. If a European power by an extension of its boundaries takes possession of the territory of one of our neighboring republics against its will and in derogation of its rights, it is difficult to see why to that extent such European power does not thereby attempt to extend its system of government to that portion of this continent which is thus taken. This is the precise action which President Monroe declared to be 'dangerous to our peace and safety,' and it can make no difference whether the European system is extended by an advance of frontier or otherwise."

The publication of the President's message created a profound sensation, and talk of war with Great Britain was freely discussed for some days. Congress promptly made the appropriation, and the commission, which was to fix a boundary for Great Britain without her consent, began work. The British government, however, soon announced its willingness to arbitrate the dispute, a fact which Mr. Cleveland immediately announced to Congress, and through it to the nation. It may be said, in passing, that the court of arbitration, before which the dispute was brought, gave the Venezuelans scant comfort, for while admitting a part of their claim, it rejected the most of it, and established Great Britain in possession of about three-fourths of the disputed land.



The "Confederate battle-flag order," as it was called, resulted in sharp criticism of the President from every part of the country. By Republican politicians and newspapers he was severely condemned, and there were not lacking evidences of dissatisfaction by the independent press, which generally supported his administration. The order restored to former Confederate states certain flags captured in battle from their regiments. It provoked a storm of indignation from the old Union soldiers and Republicans, who denounced it as a cowardly surrender to the South and a bid for the popular favor of that section. The comments of Governor Foraker, of Ohio, and Governor Fairchild, of Wisconsin, were notably severe, and after a few days the order was rescinded.

President Cleveland believed that the Democratic platform pledges should be something more than a vehicle to lift the party into power, and his influence was therefore exerted for tariff legislation. A protective tariff had no place in his philosophy. A tariff for revenue was a fundamental Democratic principle, which in time had broadened to include "incidental" protection. But even this concession was viewed with disfavor by Democrats of the old school. When it was seen, in 1893, that the party controlled both branches of Congress and the Executive, it was decided to pass a tariff bill that should largely increase the free list, and reduce duties in many important schedules. Such a bill, known as the Wilson tariff bill, taking its name from the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, passed the House in 1894, after a week's debate. One of the members of that committee was a young man from Nebraska, an ardent tariff reformer, named William J. Bryan, who, retiring from Congress at the next session, came into prominence as the Democratic candidate for President a year later. The bill was conservatively framed. It was far from being a free-trade measure, or satisfactory to the advocates of a true revenue tariff. High duties were retained on the leading articles of textile manufacture, metals, chemicals and other articles. An attempt was made by its framers to relieve raw materials of manufacture from duty and substitute simple duties, according to value, for those measured by the pound or square yard. In the Senate, a little coterie of Democrats, headed by Mr. Gorman, of Maryland, revised the bill and restored duties to such an extent that Mr. Cleveland refused to approve it, and permitted it to become a law without his signature. It failed to provide a sufficiency of revenue, though this may have been due to hard times, and it was bitterly denounced by manufacturers, notwithstanding its strong protective features, and was by them held to have prolonged the industrial depression following the panic that had by several months preceded the passage of the bill.

Impartial observers of national affairs do not admit that the tariff act of 1894 in any way aggravated the depression following the panic which, beginning with Cleveland's second administration, continued for four years. The real source of trouble was the vicious silver legislation passed during the Harrison administration, which committed the government to the monthly purchase of four and one-half million ounces of the white metal. Prudent financiers became alarmed at the rapid increase of silver money and the fast declining gold reserve in the Treasury. Bank reserves were increased, loans were restricted, and for a time a currency famine existed. Cleveland assembled Congress in extra session, and after a short delay the silver purchase act was repealed. But the mischief had been done and the country was to pay the penalty for unwise financial legislation.

The panic was the work of both parties in Congress, which, during President Harrison's term, and to his sorrow, was deeply infected by the silver heresy. The Republican leaders excused themselves for the silver purchase act by pleading that it was a choice between that and the far worse evil of free silver coinage. It was the silver purchase act that at length brought on the panic; and the issues of government bonds with which the Democratic Secretary of the Treasury replenished the gold reserve, were printed from plates that his Republican predecessor had ordered to be engraved for the very same purpose.



## FRANCES FOLSOM CLEVELAND

*A winsome lady of the White House.*

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND, when he first became President, was a bachelor. He installed as "Lady of the White House" his sister, Miss Rose Cleveland, a woman of great intelligence and tact, and an author of ability. One of Mr. Cleveland's most intimate friends in private life was Oscar Folsom, a lawyer of Buffalo. Before his death, caused by a carriage accident in 1875, Mr. Folsom requested Mr. Cleveland to be the legal guardian of his daughter, Frances, then eleven years of age. Miss Folsom graduated with honor from the Buffalo High School, where she was noted for her brightness in study. She then entered Wells College, in the sophomore class. Her future husband was then governor of New York, and was elected President before her graduation, on which occasion a gift of flowers was sent from the White House.



Miss Folsom then went abroad to study, but her stay was brief. Her relations to her distinguished guardian had led to a mutual attachment that had ripened into an offer of marriage and its acceptance. In 1886 she returned from Europe, and in June of that year, near the middle of Cleveland's first term as President, she became his wife. The wedding took place in the White House, and was the first presidential marriage within its historic walls. Naturally, the event occasioned much pleasant comment, and President Cleveland and his winsome young bride were overwhelmed with compliments and congratulations.

After a brief honeymoon, passed at Deer Park, Maryland, Mr. and Mrs. Cleveland returned to Washington. The President took up the thread of official life, and his wife was duly installed as mistress of the White House—the youngest woman who had ever been called to assume the duties of that exalted but exacting position. It would not have been a matter of wonder if so sudden an elevation, to the very pinnacle of the social structure, had turned the head of one who had but just passed the threshold of womanhood, and her friends were in no small degree apprehensive that she might not rise to the measure of the position. The result was a most happy surprise—

the quick unfolding of a character in which were combined dignity, courtesy, grace, delicacy, kindness, tact, indeed all the graces that mark the true, womanly woman. She moved about in her new sphere as though she had been born into it, all unconscious of the fierce light that beat upon her while the social world was making up its verdict. When that verdict was pronounced, it was emphatic and enthusiastic in her favor. To the end of her six years in the White House, Mrs. Cleveland steadily grew in popularity and in public esteem, and she will long be remembered in Washington as one of the purest and highest types of American womanhood. When her youth and previous inexperience are considered, it may fairly be said that her career as "First Lady of the Land" was an extraordinary one.

In private life, Mrs. Cleveland, is a model wife, mother and woman, devoted to her husband and her children. Aside from her home duties, which are her first concern, she finds time for many good words and works. During the four years between Mr. Cleveland's first and second presidential terms, he and Mrs. Cleveland lived in New York City. When they left the White House in March, 1897, they established their home at Princeton, New Jersey.

COCKRAN, WILLIAM BOURKE.—An American politician, born in Ireland in 1854. He settled in America in 1871, and was admitted to the bar in 1876. He has been a prominent Tammany leader. He was member of Congress (1888-92). He supported President McKinley in 1896 as he was opposed to the silver question. He subsequently gave his support to the Democratic party on the anti-trust, and anti-imperialist questions, at the election of 1900. He has a reputation as a platform lecturer and orator.

CODY, WILLIAM FREDERICK.—Better known by his sobriquet "Buffalo Bill." Born in Iowa, 1845. He was a member of the Neb. legislature in 1872, and organizer of the "Wild West" exhibition of frontier life. In early life he was a famous Western scout.

COLFAX, SCHUYLER.—(1823-1885.) An American statesman, born in New York City. He removed to Indiana in 1836. He was publisher of the "South Bend Free Press," and changed it to the "St. Joseph Valley Register." He was secretary of the Whig convention which nominated Taylor in Baltimore in 1848; and was member of Congress (1854-69). He was speaker for three terms beginning in 1863. He was elected Vice-president with General Grant in 1869. The last years of his life were devoted to lecturing tours of the cities of the United States.



COLT, SAMUEL.—Born at Hartford, Conn., 1814; died there, 1862. The noted inventor of the revolver, and builder of the large manufactory of arms at Hartford.

COMSTOCK, ANTHONY.—Born 1844. An American reformer. Agent of the Society for the Suppression of Vice.

CONGRESSMAN at LARGE.—A member of the House of Representatives elected by the voters of an entire state and not, as is customary, by the citizens of a congressional district. States elect congressmen at large to secure for themselves that proportionate representation in the House to which, pending the passage of a redistricting law, they are entitled on the basis of population.

CONKLING, ROSCOE.—Born at Albany, N. Y., 1829; died at New York, 1888. An American lawyer and politician. He was a member of Congress from N. Y. (1859–63 and 1865–67), and U. S. senator (1867–81). He resigned on account of a dispute with the President over the control of Federal patronage in the state of N. Y. On seeking re-election he was defeated. He was a lawyer of high renown.

CONSULS.—A consul is primarily the business agent of one sovereign state in a port or other important city of another similar state. His duties are to collect and present to the government he represents, facts bearing on the industrial and economic conditions of the country to which he is accredited, and to see that his fellow-countrymen residing in the latter or traveling therein are duly protected in their civil and commercial rights. He must be officially recognized by the government within whose territory he is to act, before he can lawfully discharge his duties. The U. S. has long had a consular service, and Congress by acts passed in 1848 and 1860, empowered its consuls, in some Oriental countries, to take testimony and decide judicial cases. A consul-general differs from a consul inasmuch as he has supervision of all the consuls of his government in any specified country.

CONVENTION, DIPLOMATIC.—A convention in diplomacy has much the same meaning as a treaty, with the distinction that a convention usually relates to a few matters of minor importance. The informal understanding or protocol is occasionally referred to as a treaty. (See PROTOCOL.)

CORBETT, BOSTON.—The slayer of John Wilkes Booth, the assassin of Abraham Lincoln. He was a member of a cavalry regiment and was engaged in the pursuit of Booth. The latter was in a barn, which had been set on fire by the soldiers. Corbett fired on Booth, contrary to orders, for which he was court-martialed. He died insane after a long confinement in an asylum in Kansas.

CORLISS, GEORGE HENRY.—Born at Easton, N. Y., 1817; died at Providence, R. I., 1888. Noted as a designer of steam engines, in which he made many valuable improvements. A great Corliss engine supplied the motive power for Machinery Hall, at the Philadelphia Centennial Exposition in 1876. At the opening, May 1, the engine was set in motion by President Grant.

COUNCIL.—A body, usually small, gathered for deliberation or to advise. In some cases political councils enact legislation. Colonial governments often had councils corresponding to the senators or upper houses of existing legislatures. In Del., Ga., S. C., and Vt., the higher branches of the legislature were so described. The term is still applied to the upper division of territorial legislatures. The governor, in certain states, has an executive council.

COUNTING A QUORUM.—A parliamentary method resorted to by Thomas B. Reed, when speaker of the lower branches of the Fifty-first Congress, to defeat the filibustering practices of the opposition. It resulted in a radical change in the rules governing the deliberations of that body. (See REED, THOMAS BRACKETT.)

COUP D'ETAT (French for *stroke of state*).—A sudden, arbitrary encroachment or attack upon the Constitution and Government of a nation or state; a stroke of policy, or a violent measure of state in public affairs. In French history, the phrase *coup d'état* is generally applied to the 18th Fructidor (Sept. 4, 1797), when part of the Directory executed a *coup d'état* against the Royalist reaction. The participators in the *coup* assembled thousands of armed men with cannon round the Tuileries, arrested and transported 52 of the deputies, suspended many public journals, and canceled a number of department elections.

COURT OF CLAIMS.—Composed of five judges whose duty it is to pass upon claims (pensions excepted) against the U. S., when the claims are based upon laws of Congress, regulations of an executive department, or contracts made by the Federal Government. Claims must be presented by petition, and such petitions brought before Congress may be by that body referred to the Court of Claims. Cabinet officers, acting for their departments, may do likewise. The Court of Claims sits in Washington. In some cases appeals may be carried from it to the Supreme Court.

COURTS.—Tribunals established to administer justice and construe law. They are, according to their degree and class, charged with the protection of private rights, the punishment of crime, the regulation of opposing interests, and the safeguarding of society. The Supreme



Court is the highest in the U. S. (See COURT, SUPREME.) The lower Federal courts are district, circuit, and circuit courts of appeal. All have law and equity jurisdiction, and cases tried in these inferior courts are, in many cases, finally appealable to the Supreme Court itself. There are more than 60 district courts in this country, and each of these has original jurisdiction in civil, criminal, and admiralty cases. The U. S. is divided into nine judicial circuits, and each district court has jurisdiction concurrent with the circuit. The latter are not appellate courts.

The circuit courts of appeal date from 1891, when they were established to relieve the Supreme Court of much of the less important business that pressed upon it.

In the various states, the lines that mark the formation of the national judiciary are closely followed in the constitution of the local courts. Territorial courts are presided over by judges appointed by the President.

In the District of Columbia, there are a supreme court and a court of appeals, the Supreme Court of the U. S. possessing appellate jurisdiction over both. U. S. consuls in certain Oriental countries are empowered to hold courts.

COURT, SUPREME.—The Supreme Court of the U. S. now consists of a chief-justice and eight associate justices, who are appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate. This tribunal was provided for in the final and accepted draft of the Constitution and was organized under the judiciary act of 1789. It convenes annually for a single term at Washington, on the second Monday in October. The members hold office for life, or during good conduct, at a compensation that cannot be diminished during their terms, and those who have served 10 years may be retired at the age of 70 on full pay. The court's jurisdiction covers all questions in law and equity under the Constitution; the laws of the U. S. and the treaties made by the latter; all cases concerning ambassadors, ministers, and consuls, admiralty and marine cases; controversies in which the U. S. is involved as a party; litigation between the states themselves, between citizens of various states, between those of the same state with claims for land under grants from different states, and between citizens of a state and foreign states, citizens, or subjects. In every case in which ambassadors, public ministers, or consuls, or a state or states shall be parties, the Supreme Court has original jurisdiction; in all others, it has appellate jurisdiction as to law and fact. It also has appellate jurisdiction over U. S. circuit court cases involving more than \$2,500.

CORTELYOU, GEORGE BRUCE.—First secretary of Commerce and Labor was born in New York City, July 26, 1862. He passed through the several occupations of law and verbatim reporter, teacher, and private secretary to several officials. He was President Cleveland's stenographer in 1895; assistant secretary to President McKinley in 1898; President McKinley's secretary in 1900; President Roosevelt's secretary in 1901; and was made secretary of Commerce and Labor on February 18, 1903.

COX, SAMUEL SULLIVAN.—Born at Zanesville, O., 1824; died at New York, 1889. A politician and diplomatist, more widely known under the sobriquet "Sunset" Cox. He served many years in Congress and became U. S. minister to Turkey in 1885. He was the author of "A Buckeye Abroad," "Eight Years in Congress," and "Three Decades in Federal Legislation," etc. As a speaker he was noted for his wit.

CREDIT MOBILIER.—Originally this was known as the Penn. Fiscal Agency, and was chartered by the legislature of that state, with a capital of \$2,500,000. Its charter was bought by a company that had the contracts to build the Union Pacific Railroad, and as the stock depended on the liberality of the contracts made by Congress, and as Congress proved very liberal, it rapidly and greatly appreciated, and enormous dividends were earned in the construction of the road. A political scandal resulted, and in the national election in 1872, Democrats accused the speaker of the House, the secretary of the treasury, the Vice-president, and the Vice-president elect of receiving Credit Mobilier stock in consideration of political influence. An investigation revealed the fact that many congressmen held blocks of the stock.

The Senate decided to expel one of its members, but as his term had nearly expired, no action was taken. Oakes Ames, of Mass., and James Brooks, of N. Y., both representatives, were censured by the House.

"CRISTOBAL COLON."—A Spanish battleship of 6,840 tons, bought from Italy, which belonged to the squadron commanded by Admiral Cervera at the battle of Santiago, July 3, 1898. When the Spanish ships steamed out of the harbor and attempted to escape, the "Colon," which had great speed, eluded the U. S. vessels, and headed westward along the Cuban coast, under the highest possible pressure of steam. She was struck by several shots, but not in a vital spot and continued on her way. For a time it seemed that she would make good her escape. She was pursued by the battleship "Oregon" and the cruiser "Brooklyn," and after an exciting chase of 50 miles was overhauled and sunk by her crew. Nearly all of her crew who were not killed or drowned were made prisoners. (See SCHLEY, WINFIELD SCOTT.)



CROKER, RICHARD.—An American politician, born in Ireland in 1843. At the age of two years he was brought by his parents to America. He was alderman of New York (1868) and again in 1888; coroner (1873); fire commissioner (1883); and chamberlain (1889). He took an active part in Tammany leadership. He supported President McKinley in 1896 as he was opposed to bimetallism, but returned to support Bryan in 1900. Since that year he has lived upon his estate in Wantage, England, and has taken no hand in New York politics.

CROWN OF THORNS AND CROSS OF GOLD.—Words applied to the gold money standard, by William J. Bryan, in a speech before the Democratic national convention at Chicago, in 1896. Mr. Bryan's eloquence so electrified the convention that he was nominated as its candidate for President. (See BRYAN, WILLIAM JENNINGS, 52.)

CULLOM, SHELBY MOORE.—An American statesman, born in Wayne Co., Ky., in 1829. He settled in Springfield, Ill., in 1853. He was admitted to the bar and immediately elected city attorney. In 1856 he was a presidential elector on the Fillmore ticket. He served in the local legislature several terms from 1856 to 1874. He was speaker in 1861 and in 1873. He was congressman from 1865 to 1871. In 1872 he presented General Grant's name to the Republican convention. In 1876 he was governor of Illinois and served as such until 1883, when he resigned and went to the U. S. Senate, where he has served ever since. He was a member of the Hawaiian government commission.

CUNARD, Sir SAMUEL.—(1787–1865.) A merchant and civil engineer. The founder of the Cunard line of trans-Atlantic steamers. The first sailing of the line was that of the "Britannia" from Liverpool to Boston July 4–19, 1840.

DAMIEN (*dä-myan'*) DE VEUSTER, JOSEPH.—(1840–1889.) Father Damien devoted his life to the care of the lepers in the government hospital at Molokai, Hawaii. He contracted the disease and died April 15, 1889.

DARK HORSE.—A phrase applied to a candidate who, in a political convention, is not pushed forward at first, but is held in reserve in anticipation of a deadlock. If the right moment appears, his name is "sprung" as a compromise, and the strategic movement is often successful.

DASH INTO THE ENEMY'S COUNTRY.—A playful phrase by which William J. Bryan characterized his speaking trip through the eastern states, during his campaigns for the presidency in 1896 and 1900. In that section the sentiment, even of his own party, was strongly

opposed to the free coinage of silver, strenuously advocated by him — hence, “the enemy’s country.” (See BRYAN, WILLIAM JENNINGS, 52.)

DAVIS, DAVID.—(1815–1886.) An American statesman and jurist, born in Ceal Co., Md. He was admitted to the bar after graduation from Kenyon College, Ohio, and settled in Bloomington, Ill. He occupied several high positions before his appointment to the United States Supreme bench, by President Lincoln. After Lincoln’s death he was executor of his estate. He was nominated for the presidency by the labor party in 1872. He left the bench in 1877 to go to the Senate to succeed John A. Logan, and was president of that body after Garfield’s death. He resigned in 1883. He was independent in politics, but usually voted Democrat.

DAVIS, HENRY LAURENS.—(1816–1903.) An American statesman, born in Cummington, Mass. He graduated from Yale in 1839. He served several terms in the state legislature and had a useful career in Congress (1857–73). In 1869 he introduced the use of the weather bulletin. He was in the Senate from 1875–93.

DAVIS, JOHN C. B.—An American jurist and diplomat, born in Worcester, Mass, in 1822. He graduated from Harvard in 1840, and was admitted to the bar in 1843. He was secretary of the legation, London, in 1849; elected to the New York state legislature (1869); assistant secretary of state under General Grant; represented the United States at the arbitration of the Alabama Claims at Geneva (1871); returned to office of assistant secretary of state; minister to Germany (1874–77); supreme court reporter (1883).

DAY, WILLIAM RUFUS.—An American statesman and jurist, born in Ravenna, Ohio, in 1849. He was admitted to the bar at Canton, Ohio, in 1872. He filled several positions in the courts of his state. In 1897 he was assistant secretary of state; and in April, 1898, succeeded John Sherman as secretary of state, which office he held until September of that year, when John Hay succeeded him. Day became chairman of U. S. Peace Commissioners at Paris. In February, 1903, he was appointed associate justice of the United States Supreme Court.

DEBS, EUGENE VICTOR.—A writer, lecturer, and labor leader, born in Terre Haute, Ind., in 1855. He served several terms in the state legislature; and was secretary and treasurer of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen for fourteen years. He was instrumental in forming the United Order of Railway Employees, and the American Railway Union (1893). This latter fraternity upheld the Pullman Palace Car strike in 1894 and the railway strike which followed. Debs and several



others were indicted for conspiracy and were imprisoned for six months. He supported Bryan in 1896, and was himself a candidate for President on the Social Democratic ticket in 1900.

DEBT, PUBLIC.—When the government of the U. S. began to operate under the Constitution, in 1789, it had a foreign debt of \$13,000,000 and a domestic debt of \$42,000,000. It then assumed the debts of the states which had been contracted in the revolutionary cause amounting to \$21,500,000. The debt was funded and the total in 1796 was \$83,800,000. This was increased \$15,000,000 by the Louisiana Purchase; reduced to \$45,200,000 by 1812; raised to \$127,000,000 by the War of 1812; virtually extinguished by 1835; increased to \$68,300,000 by the Mexican War; decreased by 1837 to \$28,700,000 and raised to \$2,845,000,000, in 1865, by the Civil War. The prosperity of the country, the enormous revenues from customs, and the successive fundings of the debt at lower rates of interest, reduced it by 1893 to \$820,109,339. Jan. 1, 1898, the debt amounted to \$1,811,543,269. In 1898 the debt was further increased by the war with Spain and on Jan. 1, 1899, it amounted to \$1,977,388,764. In 1902 the total public debt was \$2,158,610,445.89. The cash in the treasury on that date was \$1,189,153,204.85. The public debt less the cash in the treasury was \$12.27 per capita of population.

DE LONG, GEORGE WASHINGTON.—(1844–1881.) A noted American explorer; perished in Siberia, with all of his party (14 men) except two who had gone forward in search of relief.

DEMOCRATIC PARTY.—In its early history it was first known as the Democratic-Republican party, then as the Republican party, and since the time of James Monroe, as the Democratic party. Its founder and the leading exponent of its principles was Thomas Jefferson. It was opposed by the Federal party, whose most conspicuous, able, and influential members included Washington and Hamilton. The dominant concerns of the Democracy of that day were the rights of the individual and the rights of the states, whereas the paramount tenets of the Federalists were the importance of nationality and the acceptance of the principle that all states are indissolubly welded together and not loosely strung one with another, like pearls on a cord; that the U. S. is a country rather than a confederation that may be dissolved at the pleasure of the elements that compose it. The Democrats of Jefferson's time, so far sympathized with the French revolutionists, that the more pronounced among them were willing to involve the U. S. in war with England to help the French radicals. When, in 1801, the Democratic party came into power with the election of Jefferson, the sense of responsibility served to steady it. Some of its

more extreme tenets were held in abeyance and many of its members became nationalists. Adams and Clay and their personal followers, were avowed protectionists, supported national aid for internal improvements, were not strict constructionists of the Constitution, and, in a word, had as much in common with the Federalists as with the Democrats. The disciples of Adams and Clay were early known as National Republicans, and when they received large accessions from the opponents of Jackson, they formed the Whig party. From 1800 to 1860, the Democrats, well organized and powerfully led, carried every presidential election except those of 1824, 1840, and 1848. It was in power before and during the war with Mexico, annexed Tex. and Cal. and abolished the U. S. bank. During the '50's its stand on the slavery question greatly weakened it in the North. In 1860 it had two candidates for President—Stephen A. Douglas, of Ill., nominated by the "popular sovereignty" wing of the party, and John C. Breckinridge, of Ky., by the pro-slavery Democrats. John Bell, of Tenn., nominated by the American party, had also the support of many Democrats, with the opposition so divided the Republican party carried the election. The Democratic party did not regain its possession of the administration until 1884, when Cleveland defeated Blaine, only to be himself defeated by Harrison on a strong protection platform, four years later. Cleveland was again elected on a tariff revision platform in 1892. In 1896 and in 1900, William Jennings Bryan, the Democratic candidate for President, was defeated by William McKinley, on a free-silver platform.

DEMOCRATIC SOCIETIES.—Societies organized in 1793, in various parts of the U. S., to express sympathy with the French revolutionists and propagate extreme democratic views. They were similar to the Jacobins of France. They opposed Washington's efforts to suppress the Whiskey Insurrection in western Pa. in 1794, for which he vigorously denounced them. They soon died out.

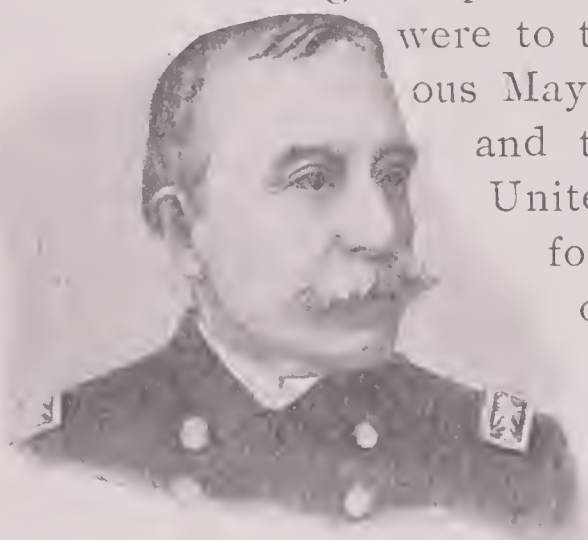
DEPEW, CHAUNCEY MITCHELL.—Born at Peekskill, N. Y., 1834; became member of the N. Y. assembly (1861–62); secretary of state for N. Y. (1863–65), and was appointed counsel of the New York Central Railroad in 1869. He was an unsuccessful candidate for the Republican presidential nomination in 1888. In 1899 he was elected U. S. senator from N. Y. Mr. Depew is famous in America and in Europe as a *raconteur* and after-dinner speaker, and also as an orator on public occasions.



## GEORGE DEWEY

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*The whole world applauded his feat at Manila.*



“YOU may fire when you are ready, Gridley,” was the quiet remark of Commodore Dewey to the captain of his flagship, which unleashed the dogs of war in Manila Bay on that bright May-day morning in 1898. The words seem more like the granting of a great privilege than an official order, and such, no doubt, they were to the gallant Gridley. That was a historic and glorious May-day to Dewey and his men, to the American navy, and to the whole people and the Government of the United States, for that day marked a prodigious stride forward by the American republic among the nations of the earth, and the birth of a vastly greater respect for its flag and that which it represents, than the hitherto dominating powers of the world had ever felt before. How the messages that were flashed under the sea from Manila during the combat caused the heart of every American to swell with pride! How they quickened the pulses and sent the blood leaping through the veins! On that day our republic ceased to be an object of pity or disdain. It was born again—born into an infinitely larger sphere of national existence, activity and influence. Thenceforward it was to take its rightful place, to be accorded the respect which it commanded by the thunder of its guns at Manila and the echo at Santiago. When war with Spain was declared, the world said the Americans could not fight; but when Dewey uttered those words to Gridley, “the men behind the guns” silenced the scornful tongues forever.

George Dewey was a Green Mountain boy, born in Montpelier, Vermont, December 26, 1837. His father was a doctor, of high personal standing and professional repute. If the truth be told, George had the name of being a “bad boy,” and, judging from the weight of evidence, this designation was fairly deserved. It was not that he was vicious, for the depravity which made him the terror of the staid village folk did not go beyond mischievous pranks that were the outgrowth of an exuberant spirit. George was the ringleader in such matters, and the people called him the “bell-wether.” He was fond of athletic sports, and there were few of these in which he did

not excel. In short, he was a hearty, robust, good-natured, roystering New England boy, giving to these words their largest meaning. He attended school in his own town and elsewhere, and devoted to study as much time as he could spare from his sports and pranks. But he was bright, and made such good progress that, at the age of sixteen, he was able to enter Norwich University. A year later he decided to enter the navy, if he could, and the way was opened by an appointment to the Naval Academy, at Annapolis. Just as he crossed the threshold of manhood, in 1858, he graduated with credit, in a class which became conspicuous for the large number of its members who attained high fame and honor.

Dewey's first service was on the frigate "Wabash," in Mediterranean waters. There was nothing worthy of note in his career until opportunity was afforded by the Civil War. When this began, he had returned from his European cruise and was ready for any duty. He was commissioned a lieutenant and assigned to the steam

sloop "Mississippi." This belonged to the Gulf squadron, which was commanded by that peerless sea fighter, David G. Farragut. Dewey was first under fire during the naval operations against the forts and the Confederate gunboats and rams which formed the defenses of New Orleans. During the combat the Confederate ram "Manassas" disabled the "Mississippi" by a blow with its beak, but Lieutenant Dewey—whose coolness and intrepidity won the personal commendation of Farragut—directed a broadside which pierced the armor of the "Manassas" and set it on fire. An explosion followed, and the ram was totally destroyed. Full credit for this achievement was officially awarded to Dewey, who thus auspiciously, under such an inspiring exemplar of fearlessness and devotion as Farragut, began that upward climb which, nearly forty years later, was to place him on the topmost rung of the ladder.

With Farragut he passed through the fire of the forts, and later, during the service of the fleet on the Mississippi River, twice ran the batteries at Vicksburg and Port Hudson. In 1864 Dewey served with the James River squadron, and in 1865 was conspicuous for his gallantry and efficiency at Fort Fisher, recognition of which was given by his promotion to the grade of lieutenant-commander. During the thirty years succeeding the war, Dewey's duties, on sea and shore, were varied, and included service as an instructor at the





Naval Academy and on naval boards at Washington, and cruises in all parts of the world. Further promotion came to him; he was made a commander in 1872, a captain in 1884, and a commodore in 1896.

In January, 1898, it became necessary to find a new commander for the American squadron in Asiatic waters. The war-cloud was then lowering darkly. It was obvious that if there should be war it would be chiefly fought on sea, and there was a general pricking up of ears among the officers of the navy, for there would be many chances to win renown. Commodore Dewey was selected for the Asiatic station. Certainly the choice was a most happy one. Possibly others might have done as well; surely none could have done better. But to the Commodore and his friends, the order was most unwelcome. Dewey was ambitious, and eager for a chance to fight. He believed that the serious work of the navy would be done on the Atlantic, and there all the glory would be won. To go to the Pacific seemed to him like entering a cemetery, and he so expressed himself to his friends. But, without a word of official complaint or objection, he packed his belongings and left for his new post of duty.

Dewey's profound loyalty to his flag is shown by an incident which occurred at Hong-Kong, China, in March, soon after he had assumed command of the American squadron. Prince Henry, commander of the German fleet that lay in the harbor, gave a banquet to the high officers of all the fleets there, which represented several nations. The Prince proposed the toasts, complimenting each country in turn, including China, but he entirely omitted any allusion to the United States—a strange mischance, if accidental, and a gross and unpardonable affront, if intentional. The moment the toasts were finished, Commodore Dewey, with flushed face and flashing eye, arose from his seat, left the table, and took his leave without the slightest ceremony. He refused to accept anything short of a written apology from the Prince himself. This was given, and expressed in courtly phrase the strongest assurance that the slight had been wholly without intent, and sincere regret that it had occurred. Soon afterward, Prince Henry gave a ball. Dewey was invited, but he did not choose to go.

Ten days after the "Maine" had been sunk in the harbor of Havana, an order was cabled to Commodore Dewey to concentrate the vessels under his command and to hold himself in readiness to move against the Spanish fleet in Philippine waters at a moment's notice, in the event that war should be declared. Dewey at once assembled at Hong-Kong the "Boston," "Concord," "Raleigh,"

"Baltimore," "McCulloch" and "Petrel," which, with the "Olympia," his flagship, composed his force. The war began on the twenty-first of April, and three days later President McKinley, as commander-in-chief of the land and naval forces of the United States, sent this message to Dewey:—

"Proceed at once to the Philippine Islands and commence operations, especially against the Spanish fleet. You must capture or destroy the vessels. Use utmost endeavor."

Dewey sailed on the twenty-seventh, and on the thirtieth lay off the island of Luzon. He had hoped to find the Spanish fleet outside and to meet it in open water, but he ascertained that it was in Manila Bay, under cover of the forts and shore batteries. The American squadron lay off shore during the day, and Dewey perfected his plan and issued his orders accordingly. He had determined to pass by night through the narrow entrance to the bay, and to attack the enemy in the early morning. It was known that the bottom of the harbor had been "planted" with torpedoes and submarine mines, but this did not for an instant deter him from his audacious purpose. It is the brave man, not the coward, that wins battles, on land or sea.

Under cover of darkness the vessels, in majestic procession, crept noiselessly into the channel and past the batteries on Corregidor Island. All lights had been extinguished, and perfect silence had been enjoined upon officers and crews. But for a spark from the funnel of the "McCulloch," without doubt the squadron would have made the passage into the bay wholly unobserved. The spark betrayed the presence of the American vessels, and the Spanish forts at once opened fire. The "Raleigh," "Boston" and "Concord," which, at the moment, were abreast of the forts, responded with vigor. The firing was wholly at random, and none of the vessels were touched. With an intrepidity that the whole world admired and honored, Dewey led the way with the "Olympia," moving steadily forward in spite of mines, torpedoes and batteries. The latter kept up a furious fire, but straight on, not faltering for an instant, swept the mighty pageant. Dewey's feat of passing the batteries is worthy to rank with that of Farragut at New Orleans, in immortal defiance of the blazing forts. Dewey had been with Farragut, and he gave to the world a noble instance of a grand example grandly followed. Without dodging or changing their course, the ships passed up the bay, to breast the hostile fleet, which lay near the city of Manila. Behind it were forts, bristling with heavy cannon.

At a quarter past five o'clock in the morning, all the batteries



at Manila and Cavité opened on the American ships. These, the flagship still leading, kept on until within range of the Spaniards, when Dewey gave to Captain Gridley the famous order to open fire, at the same time communicating his orders, by means of signals, to the other vessels. Two mines exploded near the "Olympia" and she narrowly escaped destruction, but in the face of death not an officer or man quailed for an instant. After two hours of fighting, it occurred to Dewey that his men must be hungry, for all the work of the morning had been done without breakfast. Two or three of the vessels had been struck, but not one of them was seriously injured, or in any degree disabled. The excellent work of the American gunners was clearly apparent. One of the Spanish ships was in flames, and two or three others were so crippled as to be entirely helpless.

Dewey was sure of his prey, and as a cat toys with a mouse before the final thrust of its teeth into the quivering victim, so Dewey signaled to "cease firing," and the whole fleet steamed down the bay. Here it lay several hours, to give the men opportunity for rest and refreshment. There was no possibility of escape for the enemy; no human power could avert the impending doom. But Admiral Montojo, the Spanish commander, leaped to the conclusion that the American ships had been so badly damaged by his fire that they had abandoned the fight and sailed away. In the joy of the moment,

he cabled to Spain that such was the case, and, for a brief period, there was great rejoicing at the Castilian court.

At eleven o'clock Dewey again started his engines and turned the prows of his ships toward the foe, to finish his work. He did finish it most thoroughly, and two hours sufficed. The Spaniards ceased to resist, because they no longer had anything with which to fight. Montojo had twelve vessels, large and small, and not one of them escaped. Burned, sunk, battered and riddled, the hostile fleet was now little more than a mass of wreckage. The Spaniards lost

in the action about two hundred killed or drowned and a large number wounded. The Americans lost not a man killed, but four or five slightly wounded, and not a ship seriously damaged. The history of the world furnished no parallel to the battle of Manila, until it found a counterpart at Santiago, two months later.

The people of the United States were electrified by the dispatches from Manila. The national colors were everywhere displayed and "Old Glory" floated from every peak. Few people had ever before heard of George Dewey, but now his name was on every lip—and



not only in his own country, but throughout the civilized world. Veterans of the sea in foreign countries held up their hands in astonishment at the victory Dewey had achieved, and at a cost so trifling as to be scarcely worthy of mention. The monarchs of Europe, who hitherto had dictated the international policy of the world, rubbed their eyes and awoke to the fact that a new power had arisen, with which they must reckon hereafter. Admiral Colomb, of England, paid this tribute to Dewey:—

“The boldness and the address of the American Commodore are beyond question. Henceforth he must be placed in the Walhalla of great naval commanders. Nothing can detract from the dash and vigor of his exploit at Manila, or dim the glory which he has shed on the American navy. It may be bad for the world, for assuredly the American navy will never accept a subordinate place after this exhibition of what it can do.”

Dewey was immediately promoted to the rank of rear-admiral. In the following March, on the recommendation of President McKinley, Congress revived the grade of admiral. The President nominated Dewey for the position, and he was unanimously confirmed by the Senate. But two other American sea fighters had ever reached this rank. These were David G. Farragut and David D. Porter—the latter having been promoted to that grade on the death of Admiral Farragut. This not only placed Admiral Dewey at the head of the navy, but made him the officer highest in rank in either the naval or military forces of the United States, the grade of major-general being coincident with that of rear-admiral. These promotions were heartily ratified by the voice of the people. No naval or military hero was ever raised more quickly to the very pinnacle of fame. No man can win the applause of the world without the opportunity. The order which assigned George Dewey, so much against his wish, to the command of the Asiatic squadron, brought to him an opportunity that has come to few men in the world's history. He proved to be the man to grasp it and to fulfill its largest possibilities.

Dewey, with his ships, was complete master of the situation at Manila. In the management of affairs, he displayed a degree of judgment and adroitness and an administrative ability that marked him as having no small comprehension of statesmanship. He was the sole arbiter until the arrival of a large military force, some two months after the battle. After a year of constant duty in the Philippines, Admiral Dewey was ordered home. He sailed from Manila, in the “Olympia,” near the end of May, 1899. He made a leisurely voyage, by way of the Suez Canal and the Mediterranean Sea. He stopped at various foreign ports, and everywhere the highest honors



were paid to him. He reached New York early in the autumn, and was accorded a reception exceeding in magnificent pageantry any similar event in the history of America. In other cities there were also prodigious popular demonstrations in his honor. He took up his residence in Washington, in a fine house which had been bought by popular subscription and presented to him, and entered upon his duties as the executive head of the navy. One writer has said:—

“It is perhaps unexampled in history that an officer should serve his government faithfully and well, and often under most dangerous conditions; that he should pass, without special public note, through the different grades to near the highest, and then, at the age of sixty, by one marvelous feat of inspired daring, overshadow all previous great records of the world.”

Dewey married, in 1867, a daughter of Governor Gardiner, of New Hampshire. She died in 1872, leaving one son, the Admiral's only child. He remained a widower nearly thirty years. A few months after his return from Manila, he married the widow of General William B. Hazen, an officer who won distinction in the Civil War.

DINGLEY, NELSON.—(1832-1899.) An American statesman, born in Durham, Maine. He was admitted to the bar but never practiced. He was a member of the Maine legislature (1862-73); governor of Maine for two terms; elected to Congress (1881-99). He was always an advocate of high tariff and prepared the way for the McKinley tariff of 1890. He opposed the Wilson law of 1894, and framed the “Dingley Bill” of 1897.

DISTRICTS.—Those portions of U. S. territory which are without elective or representative institutions are called districts, as the District of Columbia. In S. C., counties were formerly called districts. From 1804 to 1812, that portion of the Louisiana Purchase lying north of the northern boundary of the present state was called the District of Louisiana. Before their admission as states, Ky. and Me. were called Districts of Va. and Mass. respectively. The name district is also applied to those divisions of a state into which are grouped counties or wards of a city, for the election of representatives in Congress. These are called Congressional districts.

DOLE, SANFORD B.—Born in Honolulu, 1844, of Amer. missionary parents; elevated to Supreme Court bench (1887); member of legislature (1884, 1889); chosen president of the provisional government of Hawaii (1893) and appointed territorial governor after the annexation of Hawaii by the U. S.

DOLLIVER, JONATHAN PRENTISS.—An American statesman and lawyer, born in Kingswood, West Virginia, in 1858. He was admitted to the bar in 1878, and removed to Iowa in the same year. He was elected to Congress in 1888 and served until he was appointed to the United States Senate in 1900. He is an orator, debater, and lecturer. He was elected senator in 1902 and his term expires in 1907.

DOORKEEPER.—By an act of Congress, in 1805, the designation of doorkeeper of the Senate was changed to sergeant-at-arms. He executes all orders relating to decorum and is officially charged with all matters appertaining to the keeping of the doors of the Senate. He orders persons into custody and makes arrests by direction of the Senate. The duties of the doorkeeper of the House of Representatives are varied and complicated. He is required to enforce the rules relating to the privileges of the floor, and is responsible for the conduct of his subordinates—messengers, pages, laborers, etc. He also has charge of all the property of the House. He reports to Congress annually the amount of U. S. property in his possession, also the number of public documents in his possession subject to the orders of members of Congress. He has more patronage than any other officer of the House and appointments made by him number between 160 and 200.

DOUBTFUL STATES.—A designation applied in national political campaigns, to those states in which the opposing parties seem to be so evenly balanced that it is not possible to forecast the result.

DOW, NEAL.—(1804–1897.) Distinguished as an advocate of Prohibition. He was the drafter of the "Maine Law" in 1851 and the unsuccessful candidate of the Prohibition party for President in 1880. He served in the Civil War, having the rank of brigadier-general.

DU CHAILLU, PAUL.—An African explorer, born at Paris, 1835. He came to America in 1855, and has made several explorations of Africa. He was the first white man to shoot a gorilla. In 1902 he began a four years' journey to Siberia, but died in 1903. His body was brought to America, and buried in New York.

EADS, JAMES BUCHANAN.—Born at Laurenceburg, Ind., 1820; died at Nassau, Bahama Islands, 1887. A naval and military engineer. During the Civil War he designed and constructed for use in the Mississippi River, a number of U. S. ironclads and mortar boats; (1872–74) he constructed the steel arch bridge over the Mississippi at St. Louis; later, he was employed by the U. S. Government to deepen the channels at the mouth of the Mississippi, which he accomplished by means of jetties, pronounced by the world a great feat of engineering.



EDMUNDS, GEORGE FRANKLIN.—An American statesman and lawyer, born in Richmond, Vt., in 1828. He began the practice of law in Burlington, Vt., in 1851. He was a member of the Vermont legislature (1854–59); speaker (1856–59); member and president pro tem. of the state senate (1861–62); United States senator (1866–91); resigned. He was a member of the United States Electoral Commission of 1877 and voted for R. B. Hayes. He was much talked of for President at the national Republican convention of 1880. He is the author of the Act of March 22, 1882, known as the "Edmunds Bill," for the suppression of polygamy in Utah and the punishment of those who practise it. He is the father of the anti-trust bill of 1890. After Garfield's death he was president pro tem. of the senate. In 1897 he became chairman of the Monetary Commission of Indianapolis. He has resided lately in Philadelphia.

EIGHT-HOUR LAW.—Aug. 1, 1892, Congress passed a law restricting to eight hours the working day of all laborers and mechanics employed by the Government or upon government contracts, but no corresponding reduction in wages was made.

EIGHT TO SEVEN.—A phrase common in the politics of the country for some years after 1877, when the Electoral Commission, by a vote of eight to seven, declared Rutherford B. Hayes to have been elected President over Samuel J. Tilden.

ELECTION LAWS.—Art. 1, § 4, of the Constitution provides that "the times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof, but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators." Uniformity in the election of U. S. senators was first provided for by act of Congress in 1866, and of members of the House in 1875. July 2, 1890, a measure was introduced in the House to amend and supplement the election laws of the U. S. and to provide for a more efficient enforcement of such laws. It passed the House, but was defeated in the Senate.

ELECTORAL COLLEGE.—The name commonly given to the electors of a state when assembled to vote for President and Vice-president. Though informally used since about 1821, the term first appeared in the law of Jan. 23, 1845, which empowered each state to provide by law for the filling of vacancies in its "College of Electors." Under the Constitution, the electors of each state are to meet at a time and place designated by the law of their state, and separately vote by ballot for President and Vice-president. By the law of 1792, the electors are required to make three lists of the persons voted for, the respec-

tive offices they are to fill, and the number of votes cast for each. They must make, sign, and seal three certificates, one for each list, certifying on each that a list of the votes of such state for President and Vice-president is contained therein, adding thereto a list of the names of the electors of the state made and certified by executive authority. They appoint a suitable person to deliver one certificate to the president of the Senate at the seat of Government. Another certificate is to be forwarded by mail to the president of the Senate. The third certificate is to be delivered to the Federal judge of the district in which they assemble. The Electoral College, having discharged the duty for which it was created, is then dead, whether it adjourn or not. The Constitution provides that the number of electors from each state for choosing President and Vice-president shall be equal to the number of senators and representatives from that state; no one of them to be the holder of a national office. In 1872 the general ticket method of selecting electors was adopted in all the states. Before this, several methods were in vogue—in some states by joint ballot of the legislature, in others by a concurrent vote of the two branches of the legislature, in still others by a distinct vote or by general vote.

ELECTORAL COMMISSION.—In the presidential election of 1876, Rutherford B. Hayes and Samuel J. Tilden were the respective Republican and Democratic candidates. Charges of fraud were made concerning the electoral votes of Fla., La., Ore., and S. C. Jan. 29, 1877, Congress appointed an Electoral Commission to investigate the charges and determine the validity of the returns. This was the first time that a commission of this kind had been appointed and much doubt has been expressed as to its constitutionality. The commission consisted of 15 members—three Republican senators, two Democratic senators, three Democratic representatives, two Republican representatives, and five associate justices of the Supreme Court. Its members were Justices Nathan Clifford (president of the commission), Samuel F. Miller, Stephen J. Field, William Strong and Joseph P. Bradley; Senators George F. Edmunds, Oliver P. Morton, Frederick T. Frelinghuysen, Thomas F. Bayard, and Allen G. Thurman (replaced later by Francis Kernan), and Representatives Henry B. Payne, Eppa Hunton, Josiah G. Abbott, George F. Hoar, and James A. Garfield. The commission, by a vote of eight to seven, on Feb. 9, 1877, decided to sustain the validity of the Hayes electoral ticket in Fla., and later gave similar decisions regarding the returns from the other states. After the work of the commission the vote of the electoral college stood 185 for Hayes and 184 for Tilden. (See HAYES, RUTHERFORD B., 297.)



ELECTORAL VOTES, COUNT OF.—The electoral votes of the states are handed to the president of the Senate, who in the presence of the two Houses convened in joint session, on a day designated by law, opens the returns. These are counted by tellers, who declare the result. In 1876, grave trouble was for a time apprehended through the receipt of two sets of votes from some of the states, and Congress appointed an Electoral Commission to decide which were the proper returns, and to prevent, as far as possible, a recurrence of this condition. Congress in 1887 enacted that contests over electors should be decided under state laws whenever practicable. (See ELECTORAL COMMISSION.)

ELKINS, STEPHEN BENTON.—An American statesman, born in Perry County, Ohio, in 1841. After his admission to the bar he began his practice in New Mexico in 1863. He was delegate to Congress from New Mexico (1873–77). He then removed to West Virginia and engaged in coal mining and railroading. He was secretary of war (1891–93); U. S. senator from West Va. (1895–1907).

EMINENT DOMAIN.—The original or superior ownership, retained by the people or state, by which land or other private property may be taken for public use or benefit. This is the most definite principle of the fundamental power of the government, with regard to property remaining in the government or in the aggregate body of the people in their sovereign capacity, giving the right to resume original possession in the manner directed by law, whenever its use is essential to the mutual advantage and welfare of society. If, for instance, the proper authorities deem it necessary for the general good to open a street, lay out a park, dig a canal, abate a nuisance, charter a railroad, etc., and the owners of the land on the route or space desired refuse to sell, or demand an exorbitant price for their property, the state, by right of eminent domain, has the power of control, and the courts may compel the surrender of the property, upon due compensation being determined by a board of appraisers. The Constitution of the U. S. limits the exercise of the right of eminent domain to cases where public good demands it, and requires adequate compensation to those from whom property is taken.

ENDICOTT, WILLIAM CROWINSHIELD.—(1826–1900.) An American statesman, born in Salem, Mass. He graduated from Harvard in 1847 and was admitted to the bar in 1850. He was secretary of war under President Cleveland (1885–89). Joseph Chamberlain married his daughter.

EVARTS, WILLIAM MAXWELL.—Born at Boston, Mass., 1818; died at New York, 1901. A famous lawyer. Admitted to the N. Y. bar in

1840; was President Johnson's counsel during the impeachment trial before the U. S. Senate in 1868; was attorney-general of the U. S. under President Johnson (1868-69); U. S. counsel at the Geneva Tribunal in 1872; counsel for the Republican party before the U. S. Electoral Commission of 1877; secretary of state under President Hayes (1877-81), and U. S. senator from N. Y. (1885-91).

EVERETT, EDWARD.—Born at Dorchester, Mass., 1794; died at Boston, 1865; brother of A. H. Everett; distinguished as a statesman, orator, and classical scholar. He was appointed professor of Greek at Harvard College in 1819 and became editor of the "North American Review" in 1820; member of Congress from Mass. in 1825; governor of Mass. in 1836; minister to England in 1841; president of Harvard College, 1846; secretary of state, 1852; U. S. senator from Mass., 1853, and was candidate of the Constitutional Union party for Vice-president in 1860.

EWING, THOMAS.—(1789-1871.) An American statesman, born in Ohio County, Va. He graduated from Ohio University and was admitted to the bar in 1816. He was elected U. S. senator (1831-37); secretary of the treasury under President Tyler; secretary of the interior (1849), he was then elected to the Senate where he opposed Clay's compromise, fugitive slave law, and President Taylor's banking policy. He did much to improve the postal service. He retired from the Senate in 1851 and devoted himself to his law practice.

EXCISE.—A tax upon goods first introduced into England by the Long Parliament, which placed the tax upon liquors in 1642. It controls the licensing of the sale and manufacture of liquors.

EXCISE LAWS.—An excise is a tax imposed on articles of home production and consumption, as tobacco and liquors, or upon their manufacture or sale. The first national excise law was passed in 1790 after a fierce debate. Alexander Hamilton, then secretary of the treasury, had insisted that such a tax was necessary. Opposition to it was strong throughout the country, and culminated in the Whiskey Insurrection (which see) in western Pa. in 1794. Under Jefferson the excise tax was abolished. It was revived again in 1813, during the war with England, and again repealed in 1817. Excise laws were enacted during the Civil War and ever since that time the tax has been high on tobacco and liquors. In 1899 the tax on whiskey was \$1.10 per gallon. (See also REVENUE.)

EXECUTIVE.—That branch of a government whose function it is to carry out the laws, whether king, emperor, president, council, or other power. From 1775 to 1789 Congress was the only executive of the U. S. Government. The Constitution invested the President with



executive power, sharing only the powers of appointment and treaty-making with the Senate. The executive is one of the three great departments of the Government; the two others are the legislative and the judicial. Under some administrations executive power has wielded the most influence; under others perhaps the least of the three. The weight of the executive has steadily increased since the inauguration of the Government, not only on account of the appointing power, which is shared with the Senate, and which grows with the expansion of the Republic, but also because the President's functions are constantly exercised when Congress and the judiciary are in recess. He is, moreover, the one person who represents to the average citizen the concrete majesty of the law—the embodiment of authority in a democratic representative government.

EXECUTIVE SESSIONS.—The Constitution of the U. S. provides that the President “shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the U. S. whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law.” A rule of the Senate providing for the manner of “advising” and “consenting” to execute recommendations and appointments requires that when acting upon confidential or executive business, unless the same shall be considered in open session, the Senate Chamber shall be cleared of all persons except the senators and the necessary officials, and the latter shall be sworn to secrecy. The Senate is then said to be in executive session. The House holds no executive sessions. It may go into secret session, however, whenever confidential communications are received from the President, or whenever the speaker or any member shall inform the House that he has a communication which ought to be kept secret for a time.

EXEQUATUR.—A Latin word meaning “Let him execute.” In diplomatic usage, the word is used to signify a document authorizing an official to act in the capacity of agent or representative. Usually a written recognition of a person in the character of consul or commercial agent issued by the government to which he is accredited, and authorizing him to exercise his powers. The government from which an exequatur is asked has the right to refuse it, on either political or personal grounds. The government may also withdraw it. When deprived of his exequatur, a consul may withdraw with his records or delegate his powers to another, according to instructions.

EXHIBITIONS.—The first international exhibition held in America was that at New York City in 1853. On a very much larger scale was that held in Philadelphia in 1876, known as the Centennial Exposition. Then followed the International Cotton Exposition at Atlanta, Ga., 1881; Southern Exposition at Louisville, Ky., 1883; World's Columbian Exposition, Chicago, Ill., 1893; Midwinter Exposition, San Francisco, Cal., 1893-94; International Cotton Exposition, Atlanta, Ga., 1895; Tennessee Centennial Exhibition, Nashville, 1897; Trans-Mississippi Exhibition, Omaha, Neb., 1898; the Pan-American Exposition, Buffalo, N. Y., 1901; the Charleston, S. C., Exhibition, 1902; and the Louisiana Purchase Exhibition at St. Louis, Mo., 1904.

EXPATRIATION.—The voluntary renunciation of the rights and liabilities of citizenship in one country to become the citizen or subject of another. The right of expatriation has been sanctioned by custom and usage in the U. S. The Government has even, in a number of instances, refused protection to native born and naturalized citizens, on the ground that they had expatriated themselves. Notwithstanding this, there has never been any statutory provision for expatriation other than is contained in the act of Congress of July 27, 1868, which declares it the natural and inherent right of all people, and that any denial or restriction thereof is contrary to the fundamental principles of government. Expatriation has been frequently pleaded before the Supreme Court, but the plea has always been overruled. Though the right be admitted, except in the case of persons subject to military service, holding public trust, or charged with crime, the difficulty remains to give evidence of the mode of expatriation. It is usually fixed, however, by a person taking the oath of allegiance to another country and government.

EXPENDITURES, PUBLIC.—In 1794 the annual expenditures of the Federal Government amounted to only \$6,300,000. In 1814, on account of the war with Great Britain, they increased to \$34,700,000. They fell in 1834 to \$18,600,000 and in 1854 were \$55,000,000. During the last year of the Civil War (1865) they amounted to \$1,295,000,000; in 1878 they had declined to \$237,000,000. For the following ten years the expenditures averaged \$260,000,000 per annum. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, they were \$459,400,000. In 1896 they were \$343,678,000, and for the year ending Sept. 30, 1898, they increased to \$532,381,000. In 1901 they were \$593,038,903.

EX POST FACTO LAW.—A law which makes criminal an act done before its passage; one which aggravates a crime and makes it legally greater than when committed; one which changes the punishment or makes it greater than that affixed by law to the crime when commit-



ted; or one that changes to the injury of the offender the legal rules of evidence applicable to an offense already committed. The Constitution of the U. S. prohibits the passage of such laws by Congress or by any other legislative body, but this applies to criminal and penal statutes only, and not to those which affect property.

EXTRADITION, INTERNATIONAL.—The delivery of persons by one state or nation to another, particularly fugitives from justice. Extradition treaties have been concluded by the Government of the U. S. with the principal governments of the world and many of the smaller ones. The first was that with Great Britain, negotiated by John Jay in 1794. Congress made no law for carrying out its provisions and in 1842 a second treaty was negotiated. This was found to be inadequate in many respects, and called forth a protest from Great Britain. By 1886, the treaty of 1842 was found to be entirely inadequate, and the Phelps-Rosebery convention of that year offered a more satisfactory system, but it was rejected by the Senate. That body, however, ratified the Blaine-Pauncefote convention of 1889, which accomplished the desired result. Extradition treaties were negotiated by this country with France in 1843; Hawaii, 1849; Switzerland, 1850; Prussia, 1852; Austria, 1856; Sweden and Norway, 1860; Mexico, 1861; Italy, 1868; Ecuador, 1872; Ottoman Empire, 1874; Spain, 1877; Japan, 1886; Netherlands, 1887; Russia, 1893.

FAIRBANKS, CHARLES WARREN.—An American statesman, born in Union County, Ohio, in 1852. He was admitted to the bar of Ohio in 1874 and began practice in Indianapolis. In 1893 he was unanimously nominated Republican candidate for United States Senate and received the entire party vote, but was defeated by Senator Turpie. He was temporary chairman of the Republican convention at St. Louis in 1896; chairman of the committee on resolutions at Philadelphia in 1900; member of High Commission on Canadian questions at Quebec, Canada (1898). Elected U. S. senator (1897–1909).

FARMERS' ALLIANCE.—A political organization devoted to the interests of farmers in the U. S. It succeeded in electing several state governors and congressmen in 1890, and was merged into the People's party in 1891.

FELO DE SE.—This term is applied in law to voluntary self-destruction on the part of a man at the age of discretion and of sound mind. In the state of New York the attempt to commit suicide, or aiding or assisting another in the act or the attempt is made a felony, and aiding or assisting another is manslaughter in the first degree.

FESSENDEN, WILLIAM PITT.—(1806–1869.) An American statesman, born in Boscawen, N. H. He began the practice of law in Maine,

and served several times as a Whig in the Maine legislature. He was elected by the Free-soilers and Whigs to the United States Senate in 1854, where he served two terms. He was active in the formation of the Republican party, opposed the Kansas-Nebraska bill, and was at the peace convention (1861). He became secretary of the treasury (1864), but resigned and entered the Senate (1865). He opposed the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, and was one of the seven Republicans to vote against the conviction on his trial by the Senate.

FIELD, STEPHEN JOHNSON.—(1816–1899.) An American jurist, born in Haddam, Conn. He was a brother of Cyrus West Field. He went with his sister, a missionary, to Greece and Smyrna when thirteen years old. He graduated from Williams College in 1837 and began the practice of law in New York City. In 1849 he settled in California. Though a Democrat, President Lincoln appointed him an associate justice of the Supreme Court of the United States in 1863. He was a member of the Electoral Commission of 1876 and voted for Tilden. As justice, he served longer than any other incumbent, his term of office covering thirty-four and one-half years. During that time he delivered over one thousand opinions which are remarkable for impartiality.

FILIBUSTERING.—The name given to the practice often resorted to in parliamentary bodies by the minority party, or by a few individuals, to delay or defeat legislative action by the majority. It was often employed in Congress to prevent the passage of acts which were obnoxious to some of the members. Its most frequent use was to gain or defeat partisan political ends. The filibuster was practically abolished in the House by the adoption of the "Reed rules," in 1890. For a description of the methods by which filibustering was carried on, see REED, THOMAS B., p. 354.

FISH COMMISSION.—In 1872 the artificial propagation of fish, under the supervision of Congress, was begun. The Fish Commission had been established a year before, and Prof. Spencer F. Baird was the first commissioner. He served until his death in 1887, when Dr. George Brown Goode received the appointment. Marshall McDonald, John J. Brice, and George M. Bowers have since held the office. Congress appropriates annually an average of \$150,000 for the work of the Commission, and the Government maintains stations at various points in the country. Many individual states have Fish Commissions of their own; these supplement the work of the National body, which in 10 years distributed 2,390,000,000 fish. The latter and their eggs are transported in cars specially built for the purpose. The purpose of the Commission is to stock the waters of the country with the best



food and game fish, and to restock the lakes and streams in which the supply has been exhausted. The work has been very successful, and such choice fish as bass, trout, whitefish, perch, salmon, and many others have been propagated at the hatcheries and distributed in enormous quantities.

FISHERIES.—The right to fish on the high seas is common to all, but the term high seas does not include the waters within a marine league, or three nautical miles of the adjoining land of the country, nor can foreigners fish within this limit except by express permission of the controlling government. The fisheries have been fruitful of disputes between Great Britain and the U. S. The Canadians, after the Revolution, wished to bar citizens of this country from taking fish off the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland and from the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The treaty of 1783 gave to Americans the right to take and prepare fish on the coast line of any unsettled British possessions, and to take them, without curing or drying, on the banks of Newfoundland. They also had sweeping rights on the coasts of Nova Scotia, Magdalena Islands, and Labrador, until such time as the shores should become settled, and thereafter if the inhabitants or proprietors consented. The War of 1812 ended this arrangement. A treaty made with Great Britain in 1818 was less favorable to U. S. citizens than the convention of 1783. A reciprocity treaty, in force from 1854 to 1866, gave to our people the right to fish in the waters of all British possessions except Newfoundland. From 1866 to 1871 the provisions of the treaty of 1818 were again in force. Under the agreement entered into in 1871, Canadian fishermen had the right to take any but salmon, shad, and shellfish in the waters of the U. S. as far south as latitude 39°, our citizens to have corresponding privileges in Canadian waters. The Canadians, however, claimed that U. S. fishermen had the better of the bargain and a joint commission was named to ascertain the excess of advantage on the side of the U. S. and to determine the compensation to be paid therefor. (See HALIFAX COMMISSION.) In 1885 the operation of the 1871 treaty ceased and the condition that was unsatisfactory to all interests ensued. In the spring of 1886, a U. S. fishing schooner was seized for buying bait on forbidden coasts. Other seizures for similar reasons were made and excitement ran high in both countries. In 1887 Congress authorized the President to retaliate, and empowered him to close the ports of the country against the vessels and products of Great Britain and its dominions; but the President preferring a more amicable method, appointed Thomas F. Bayard, William Putnam, and James B. Angell to confer with special representatives of Great Britain. The result of

their deliberations was the treaty of 1888, by which England abandoned her claim that the 3-mile limit extended from headland to headland, and agreed that, except in cases expressly provided for, of bays more than 10 miles wide, the marine league should be calculated outward from a line across such bays, and allowed U. S. vessels in Canadian ports all the rights of Canadian vessels except to buy bait. The treaty failed in the Senate. Amicable relations between Canadian and U. S. fishermen are now maintained by means of a *modus vivendi*, that may be terminated at the pleasure of the parties to the arrangement. A joint high commission that met in 1898-99 was unable to reach an agreement, and the fisheries question is now (1904) pending between the U. S. and the British Government.

FISH, HAMILTON.—(1808-1893.) An American statesman and diplomat, born in New York City. He graduated from Columbia College in 1827, and was admitted to the bar in 1830. He was a Whig representative to Congress until 1854; lieutenant-governor of New York (1847-48); governor (1849-51); then he was elected to the United States Senate. He was minister to France, and in 1869, Grant made him secretary of state. The Alabama claims were settled during his term of office.

FLOWER, ROSWELL PETTIBONE.—(1835-1899.) An American statesman, born in Theresa, N. Y. After a business career he became a banker in 1869. He was Democratic representative to Congress (1881-90); governor of New York (1891). He retired from public life to attend to his business interests. Flower Hospital of New York and several churches are his gifts. He opposed Bryan in 1896 on the question of bimetallism.

FLYING SQUADRON.—A detachment of swift cruisers commanded by Commodore Schley during the Spanish-American War. (See SCHLEY, WINFIELD SCOTT, 368.)

FOLGER, CHARLES JAMES.—(1818-1884.) An American statesman and jurist, born in Nantuckett, Mass. He was admitted to the bar of New York in 1839, and began his practice in Geneva. He was a Republican (1856); state senator (1861-69); assistant treasurer in New York under Grant (1869); chief-justice of New York (1880); secretary of the treasury under Arthur (1881). In 1882 he was a candidate for governor of New York and was beaten nearly 200,000 votes by Grover Cleveland.

FORAKER, JOSEPH BENSON.—A Republican senator from Cincinnati, was born in Highland County, Ohio, in 1846. He served during the Civil War and rose to the rank of brevet captain. He is a lawyer by



profession, having been admitted to the bar in 1869. He was governor of Ohio in 1885 and again in 1887. He was chairman of the Ohio Republican state convention from 1884 to 1900. He has represented Ohio at the national Republican conventions continuously from 1884 to 1900. He presented the name of Hon. John Sherman to the convention in 1884 and 1888; and that of William McKinley in 1896 and 1900. He has been senator since 1896 and his term of office expires 1909.

FORD'S THEATER.—Formerly a theater in Washington, D. C., in which President Lincoln was assassinated by John Wilkes Booth, Apr. 14, 1865. In more recent years it was used as the record division of the War Department. The building collapsed in 1893, killing a number of people.

FRANKING PRIVILEGE.—A right enjoyed by government officials to send letters and packages by mail free of postage. It was first granted by Congress in Jan., 1776, to private soldiers actually in service, and was gradually extended to the President, Vice-president, Cabinet officers, members of Congress, bureau officials, postmasters, etc. The franking privilege covered letters, newspapers, executive papers, documents, and printed matter. Many abuses grew up under the system, and Postmaster-general Creswell, in his report in 1872, estimated that the frank matter, if paid for, would yield a revenue of \$3,500,000. Jan. 31, 1873, Congress passed an act entirely abolishing the privilege. Certain features have since been restored. By acts passed in 1874 and 1875, documents ordered printed for the use of Congress were admitted for free transmission through the mails. By special acts the privilege has been extended to widows of Presidents. The act of Jan. 12, 1895, gives to members of Congress the right to frank through the mails all correspondence on official and departmental business only.

FRELINGHUYSEN, FREDERICK THEODORE.—Born at Millstone, N. J., 1817; died at Newark, N. J., 1885; nephew of Theodore Frelinghuyssen. He was elected U. S. senator from N. J. in 1866 and 1871; was a member of the Electoral Commission in 1877, and secretary of state in 1881.

FULLER, MELVILLE WESTON.—Chief-justice of the United States under appointment dated April 30, 1888, confirmed July 20, 1888, and oath taken October 8, 1888. He was born in Augusta, Me., in 1833. He graduated from Bowdoin College in 1853, attended Harvard Law School and was admitted to the bar in 1855. In 1856 he removed to Chicago where he was engaged in his practice until his appointment.

He is an LL.D. of Northwestern University and Bowdoin College (1888); of Harvard (1890); of Yale and Dartmouth (1901).

FUNSTON, FREDERICK.—An American soldier, born in Ohio, in 1865. His parents removed to Kansas in 1867 when his father was member of Congress for ten years. In 1893 and 1894, Fred. Funston was connected with an exploring expedition to Alaska. In 1896 he went to Cuba; in 1898 he was commander of a United States regiment, and was ordered to the Philippines, where he took part in the capture of Manila. On March 23, 1901, by strategy he captured Aguinaldo, 200 miles northeast of Manila. In 1899 he was made a brigadier-general and the state of Kansas presented him with a sword for valor. In 1904 he was commander of the Department of Columbia, with headquarters at Vancouver Barracks, Wash.

GAGE, LYMAN JUDSON.—Born at De Ruyter, N. Y., 1836. An eminent financier. In 1882 he was president of the First National Bank in Chicago, whither he had removed with his parents at an early age. He was president of the Chicago Exposition Company and was an important factor in its successful management. In 1897 was appointed secretary of the treasury, in the Cabinet of President McKinley. He was active in furthering the gold standard and in enlarging the powers of the national banks. He was succeeded in 1902 by Leslie M. Shaw. Since that time Mr. Gage has devoted his attention to his business interests.

GARCIA Y INIGUEZ, CALIXTO.—A noted Cuban revolutionary leader, born at Holguin, Santiago province, in 1836, and died at Washington, D. C., Dec. 11, 1898. He took part in the Ten Years' War in Cuba (1868-78) against Spain, was wounded and taken prisoner. His life was spared, however, in this as well as in the later "Little War" on the island, though he was again captured and taken to Madrid, where for sixteen years he was under police surveillance. In 1895 he left Madrid secretly and made his way to the United States, where he organized a filibustering expedition which was interfered with by the U. S. Government. In the following year he found his way back to Cuba, where he conducted an irregular warfare against Spain, capturing Guaimaro in Dec., 1896. At the siege of Santiago by the U. S. forces, in June-July, 1898, Garcia with his native insurgents coöperated with Gen. Shafter, and when the city surrendered he withdrew to Holguin in a huff because he was not placed in command. Later on, he was commissioned by the Cuban Assembly to visit Washington and confer with President McKinley on the future policy of this country toward Cuba. Here, however, he met his death, the result of an attack of pneumonia.



## JAMES ABRAM GARFIELD

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*From the towpath of a canal to the White House.*

IN THE line of Presidents, from Washington to McKinley, twenty-four in number, there are two whose lives especially point to the doors that stand open before every American boy. Lincoln's heritage was squalid poverty, and until his early manhood he was engaged in the most menial occupations to provide for his father's family the bare necessities of life. Garfield, too, knew what it was to be pinched by poverty. When he was driving mules along the towpath of a canal, to assist in the support of his widowed mother, none would have dared to predict that he would one day reach the most exalted position in the government of the United States. His resolute determination, born of an ambition to burst the fetters that bound him in his youth, overcame every obstacle, and carried him rapidly upward to successive higher planes of attainment and usefulness.

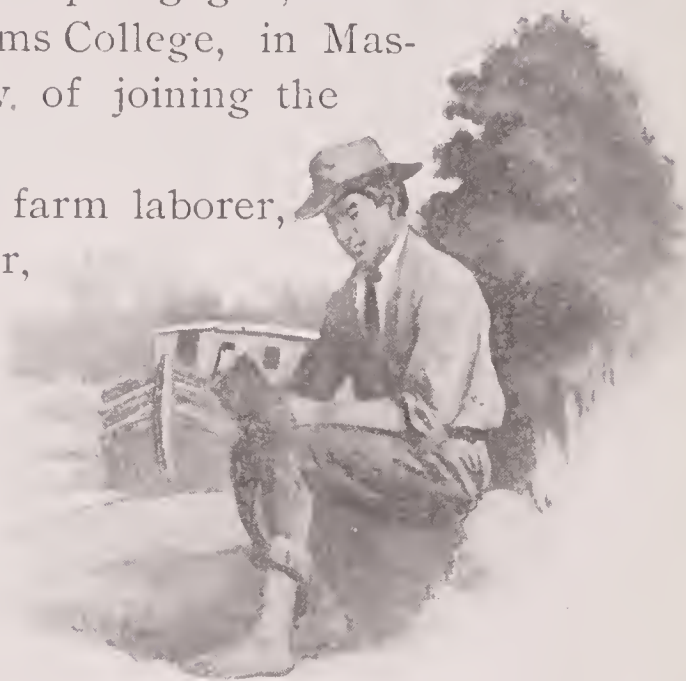


Garfield first saw the light in a log cabin in northern Ohio, in 1831, and the penury to which he was born found a lower depth at a very early age, through the death of his father. Toil and privation were the familiars of his boyish days, but poverty and remoteness from the seats of civilization still leave to the most unfortunate in this country the little rushlight of learning in the winter-time district school. In the case of Garfield, as in those of so many poor youths who have risen to public distinction, the absence of other diversions threw him upon reading, and much reading awoke an unquenchable desire for a higher education. After years of hard work on a poor little farm, Garfield, in his seventeenth year, attained the coveted place of a towpath boy on one of the Ohio canals. This brought him into contact with a larger world, and expanded both his experience and his ambition. He always carried books with him, and whenever his boat stopped, he devoted every leisure moment to reading and study, under the shade of a tree by day, or at night, in the rude cabin, by the flickering light of a fire or a tallow candle. A year on the towpath ended with his becoming a seminary student, the means of his support and tuition being provided by the labor of his hands as a carpenter, a trade that he had picked up, and which his own resourceful-

ness and the rude state of that industry at the time enabled him to follow with enough success for his modest needs. Two well-spent years at the seminary gave him such a lead over the average attainments in education of that locality and time, that, by private tutoring, he was enabled for three years to maintain himself at the modest Campbellite College at Hiram, in his native state. His tutoring did more, for it brought into view his capacity as a pedagogue, and in 1854, in his twenty-third year, he entered Williams College, in Massachusetts, for a two years' course, with a view of joining the teaching staff at Hiram upon his graduation.

The little orphan, who had been successively a farm laborer, mule driver for a canal boat and rough carpenter, had made headway in the world, for he was now destined to be a real professor. At term time of 1856 he was back at Hiram, with his diploma from Williams College, and as the simple teaching at the plain little college that was more pious than profound, made but small drafts upon the amplitude that he had gained at Williams, he took simultaneously to activity in politics in the newly formed Republican party, and to the study of law. His entry into politics was in some degree an act of piety, for in 1856 the Republican party was a propaganda of humanity, with much religious fervor back of it.

In 1857 a vacancy in the presidency of Hiram College led to Garfield's promotion to that office, for he stood head and shoulders above anybody else who desired or was willing to fill so comparatively small a place. In 1859 his local prominence sent him to the senate of Ohio, and there the Civil War found him. On the outbreak of that war, he was quick to decide that his duty was to use his influence and talents on the Union side, and he raised a regiment of volunteers, of which the nucleus was supplied by the college students. He took the field as Colonel of the Forty-second Ohio Infantry, and his capacity to command found prompt recognition. Early in January, 1862, he was sent with a force, consisting of several regiments, to operate against General Humphrey Marshall, who was at the head of a body of Confederate troops in eastern Kentucky. Garfield had never before been under fire, but he conducted his campaign with such vigor and courage that he routed Marshall, at Middle Creek. There was plenty of raw pluck, but little military skill, on either side, nor was the fight of great military importance; but the fortune of the day went with Garfield, and this, coupled with his religious and political importance in his state, obtained for him immediate promotion to the rank of brigadier-general. In command of a brigade of Buell's army, he





participated in the Shiloh and Corinth campaigns, when his health gave way and he went home on sick leave. In September, 1862, he was on court-martial duty at Washington. By this time he was a favorite with Chase, of his own state, who had hopes of supplanting President Lincoln, and this caused Rosecrans, who had succeeded Buell in the chief command in the middle west, to make Garfield his chief-of-staff, in place of Colonel Julius P. Garesché, who had been killed at Stone River.

The long period of inaction by Rosecrans, after his victory at Murfreesboro, alarmed Garfield for his own future, and induced him to write a letter to Chase for his protection with the administration. The letter did not see the light till many years afterward, but when it was published, the comment of Rosecrans upon it was that if he had known of it at the time he would have given Garfield half an hour for prayer and then had him shot. Garfield continued in the position of chief-of-staff about nine months, which included the Tullahoma and Chickamauga campaigns. On the second day at Chickamauga, when Longstreet pierced the Union line, cut off five brigades from the Union right and drove them in rout from the field, Rosecrans and his staff were caught in the tide of demoralized men that streamed to the rear. Mistakenly believing that the day was hopelessly lost, Rosecrans and the most of his attendants galloped to Chattanooga, twelve miles distant, to make such arrangements as might be possible to hold the town. Garfield, by a long detour, succeeded in reaching General Thomas, who was fighting valiantly and sturdily along the center and left of the Union line. He sent a swift courier to Rosecrans at Chattanooga, with the tidings that the army was not defeated. Garfield remained with Thomas during the rest of the day and rendered most valuable assistance to the "Rock of Chickamauga" in repelling the furious assaults of the enemy, and, after nightfall, in the safe withdrawal of the army. Garfield's good conduct at Chickamauga gave him a new prominence. In the public estimation he was placed by the side of General Thomas, whom the people delighted to honor. Garfield was made a major-general, but he soon resigned his commission to take a seat in Congress, to which he had been elected.

As a member of the House of Representatives, Garfield was placed on the military committee, from which he was promoted in time to the chairmanship of the committee on banking and currency. Afterward he was again promoted to the great post of chairman of the committee on appropriations, which made him the most besought man in the United States, as having, in larger measure than anybody else, the control of the public treasury. He always stood better with the public than with those in public life, who saw the weaker side of his

character as the general public did not. His contact with the people was a contact from his best side. In his speeches and addresses, his high principles and thoughts, his love of religion, morality, benevolence, and the domestic virtues, and his broad and strong patriotism, found expression in winning and impressive utterances that to his auditors associated the speaker as always the personal exemplar of the things that possessed his own mind, as he transmitted them to his hearers. In Congress and in the political circle, his ability as a legislator and debater obtained recognition, and, being personally genial, generous and companionable, it was all the easier to admit the bottom goodness and the fair intention of the big, capable and large-hearted man who, if he did give way at unexpected moments, was soon up and looking again in the right direction. His scholarship, too, was much above the congressional average, and the practical politician who is also learned is sure of respect among his fellow-politicians, for that reason in itself. Thus, the choice of Garfield in 1877, as one of the two Republican members of the House to sit on the electoral commission, created to settle the disputed presidential election, was an unquestionable tribute to his high rank and reputation in Congress. His standing with the people and party men of his own state was proved, less than three years afterward, by his election to the United States Senate for the term beginning March 4, 1881, on which day he was inaugurated President.

At the national convention of the Republicans in 1880, held in Chicago, the chief rival candidates were Blaine and Sherman, but under the immediate management of Don Cameron of Pennsylvania, with Senator Conkling of New York as intellectual director, three hundred and six of the delegates had pledged themselves to vote solidly, first, last and all the time, for a third term for General Grant. This so-called "Old Guard" was fifty-two votes short of a nominating majority, but so long as it could be held together, the nomination of either Blaine or Sherman was an impossibility, and if it did hold together long enough the fifty-two votes would be sure to go to it; while if once the break showed itself, there would be a stampede to Grant, and upon this his managers were relying. Garfield was present as the manager for Sherman, and the necessity of guarding and combining against the solid and impervious vote for Grant brought him into unusual prominence with the delegates who were determined to have anybody but Grant for the nominee. The latter's vote of three hundred and six was not shaken in twenty-seven ballotings, nor did Blaine or Sherman gain. The convention began to realize that it must be Grant or a "dark horse," and it was apparent that neither Edmunds of Vermont, nor Washburne, of Illinois, for whom a few admirers had been



steadily voting, had dark-horse qualities. On the twenty-eighth ballot two votes were cast for Garfield, and these had risen to fifty on the thirty-fifth ballot. The dark horse was now indicated, and it remained for the supporters of Blaine or Sherman, or both, to give way, or let the nomination go to Grant, whose phalanx was as fresh and hopeful as the rest of the convention was tired and dispirited. Blaine and Sherman both personally consented to a break to Garfield, who received three hundred and ninety-nine votes, or twenty-one more than enough, on the thirty-sixth ballot.

Garfield proved to be a strong candidate with the party at large, and all the clamor against him did him little harm. The Democrats had for their candidate General Winfield Scott Hancock, who had won bright laurels as a soldier in the Civil War, and there seemed to be a fair chance that he might be successful, but in the East the Republicans forced the fighting on the tariff issue and Garfield was elected. He was inaugurated on March 4, following, and entered upon his brief administration of four months. He appointed a strong Cabinet, which included James G. Blaine as Secretary of State. Perhaps the most notable incident during the presidency of Garfield was his bitter political quarrel with Senator Conkling, of New York. Conkling had strongly opposed the nomination of Garfield, and the long-standing feud between Conkling and Blaine was kindled into a fiercer flame by the selection of the latter for the first place in the Cabinet. A direct issue was made on the control of the Federal appointments in New York. When Conkling found that he could not manage these, he resigned his seat in the Senate and retired to private life.

By transferring the historic Blaine-Conkling feud to his own political household, Garfield lost his life. As he was taking a train at Washington, on a bright July morning in 1881, to go to Williams College and address the graduates, he was shot and mortally wounded by Charles Jules Guiteau, a needy candidate for a small consulship, whose hopes had been destroyed by the feud. The patient lingered for more than two months, his case hopeless from the very beginning, but with its hopelessness concealed from the public. He was finally removed from the sultry atmosphere of Washington to the bracing air of the New Jersey seacoast, where, in a cottage at Elberon, he passed away September 19, 1881, after having had enjoyment enough from the change to justify his removal. His body was taken to Cleveland, Ohio, where it was interred in the beautiful Lake View Cemetery. It lies beneath a magnificent mausoleum which was erected by the willing contributions of his friends and neighbors who had known and loved him in life.

GARLAND, AUGUSTUS HILL.—(1832-1899.) An American jurist and statesman, born in Covington, Kentucky. He was admitted to the bar of Arkansas in 1853, and was a member of the provisional Congress at Montgomery, Ala., in 1861. He was a member of the first Confederate Congress and a Confederate senator. He was elected United States senator in 1867 but was not allowed to sit. In 1874 he was governor of Arkansas, and United States senator (1877-85). President Cleveland made him United States attorney-general (1885-89), after which he took up his law practice in Washington, D. C.

GARLAND CASE.—In 1860 Augustus H. Garland, of Ark., was admitted to practice in the U. S. Supreme Court. Soon after the state of Ark. had seceded from the Union, in 1861, he was elected to the Confederate Congress, where he served until the surrender of Gen. Lee in 1865. He was included in the general amnesty extended to citizens of the Southern States. July 2, 1862, Congress enacted a law requiring all candidates for office to take an oath that they had never engaged in hostilities against the U. S. and on Jan. 24, 1865, this oath was required of persons admitted to the bar of any circuit or district court of the U. S. or court of claims. Garland refused to take the prescribed oath, on the ground that it was unconstitutional and void as affecting his status in court, and that if it were constitutional, his pardon released him of compliance with it. The court sustained him in his contention, on the ground that the law was *ex post facto*. Justice Field, delivering the opinion, said: "It is not within the constitutional power of Congress thus to inflict punishment beyond the reach of Executive clemency." Chief-justice Chase and Justices Miller, Swayne, and Davis dissented.

GATLING, RICHARD JORDAN.—Born, 1818; noted as the inventor of the Gatling gun, the first of which was constructed in 1862.

GENERAL.—The highest rank in the U. S. army conferred in recognition of distinguished military service. It was first created by act of Congress, Mar. 2, 1799, and conferred upon George Washington. It was abolished in 1802, but was revived July 25, 1866, for Ulysses S. Grant. William T. Sherman succeeded to the rank Mar. 4, 1869, Grant having become President, and held it until his retirement Feb. 8, 1884. The grade was revived June 1, 1888, for Philip H. Sheridan, who held it until his death, Aug. 5 of that year. The rank of General was also the highest in the Confederate army.

GENEVA CONVENTION.—An agreement made at Geneva, Switzerland, in 1864, by France, Belgium, Switzerland, Portugal, Holland, Italy, Spain, Denmark, Baden, and Prussia. Many other military



powers have since subscribed to it, including the U. S. The convention provides that no distinction of nationality shall be made in caring for sick and wounded soldiers and guarantees the neutrality of ambulances. When natives of an invaded country shelter the wounded in their homes, these natives shall be exempted from the quartering of troops and military contributions. Hospitals and their staffs, when undefended by arms, are recognized as neutral. Surgeons, physicians, nurses, and ambulance drivers are, for their protection, distinguished by a red cross on a white field, a device usually worn on the arm. Flags bearing the same emblem are used to indicate hospitals. The sick and wounded held by the enemy shall, when cured, be returned to their own country if unfit for service; if able for duty they shall be paroled. A convention in 1868 extended the principles of the agreement to naval warfare. There are many Red Cross societies that work in sympathy with the aims of the Geneva Convention. The idea that found practical expression in the latter originated with Heinrich Dumont, a physician, and Gustave Moynier, chairman of the Society of Public Utility, citizens of Switzerland. (See BARTON, CLARA.)

GEOGRAPHER OF UNITED STATES.—An act passed by Congress May 20, 1875, created a national geographer whose duty it was to supervise all surveys and submit plats to the Treasury Department. The U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey now has control of this work.

GEOLOGICAL SURVEYS.—Expeditions for the special purpose of making geological inquiry have been provided for by the general government and by nearly all the states, beginning with N. C., whose legislature authorized a survey of the state in 1823. The U. S. at first attached geologists to exploring parties, but in 1834 it sent out a special Geological Survey under Featherstonhaugh. Similar expeditions set forth in 1839, 1845, 1847, and 1848. In 1867 F. V. Hayden surveyed Neb., extending his work later into other territories. In 1871 J. W. Powell surveyed the country bordering on the Colorado River, and G. M. Wheeler was put in charge of a topographical survey. In March, 1879, the U. S. Geological Survey was created and the Hayden, Powell, and Wheeler surveys were consolidated with it. The work of the survey covers all parts of the U. S. and has been a most valuable aid in the development of the mineral resources of the country. The Geological Survey Bureau is attached to the Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C. It has charge of the classification of public lands, the examination of the geological structure, mineral resources, and products of the U. S., and the survey of the forest reserve.

GHERARDI, BANCROFT.—(1832-1903.) An American naval officer, born in Jackson, La. He was a midshipman on the *Ohio* (1846); entered the naval academy (1852); served on the "*Lancaster*" at the beginning of the Civil War; was made lieutenant-commander (1862); and was at White Bay. He was made commander (1866); rear-admiral (1886); conducted the naval review at Hampton Roads (1893); and retired in 1894.

GOLD AND SPECIE PAYMENT.—During the administration of President Hayes, specie payments were resumed on January 1, 1879. The act authorizing this had been passed four years before, but no one cared to carry it out. To some the plan seemed to be impossible, to others undesirable, John Sherman of Ohio, was the Secretary of the Treasury who planned and executed the movement. He offered to sell government bonds for gold to accumulate sufficient to pay off the treasury notes in that coin. He planned to secure in this way one hundred million dollars in gold. At the same time he proposed to exchange a large amount of the five and six per cent. bonds outstanding at five and six per cent. for a new issue of four and four and a half per cent. From the very first the method was successful. On the first business day of the year more gold was paid in than was required to redeem notes. By March first bonds were refunded to the amount of \$845,345,950, which meant a saving to the nation of over \$14,000,000 in interest annually. One New York Bank wired an offer to take \$150,000,000 of the bonds. The enormity of the transaction and the successful carrying out of the measure had the effect of establishing the nation's credit abroad.

GORMAN, ARTHUR PUE.—An American statesman, born in Howard Co., Md., in 1839. After several terms in the state legislature and senate he was elected to the U. S. Senate in 1880, 1886, and 1892. In 1902 he was again re-elected, and took his seat March 4, 1903. His term of office expires in 1909.

GOVERNOR.—The executive head of each of the states of the Union. After the Revolution the constitutions of each state provided for a single head to be called the governor. Their terms vary from 1 to 4 years and their salaries are from \$1,000 to \$10,000. To them is intrusted the execution of the laws, and they are usually invested with the veto and pardoning powers. In our early history the governors of many of the states were chosen by the legislatures thereof. At present the uniform practice is to elect the governor by popular vote.

GOULD, JAY.—Born at Roxbury, N. Y., 1836; died at New York,



1892. A noted American capitalist and financier. He acquired large wealth by the management of railroads.

GRAND JURY.—A jury whose duty it is to inquire into charges for offenses and to determine whether indictments shall be brought against alleged criminals in any court. The custom is very ancient and has been scrupulously guarded as a safeguard of civil liberty since the time of Ethelred, an Anglo-Saxon king of the 9th century. Its members sit in absolute secrecy, and may either pass upon bills presented by the prosecuting officer of the state, or upon presentments made by one of their own number, or upon evidence laid before them of any violation of the law. The proceedings are entirely *ex parte*. Witnesses only for the prosecution are examined. If the requisite number of jurors are satisfied from the evidence presented of the truth of the accusation, they write across the indictment the words, "A true bill," but if the evidence is unsatisfactory the indorsement is, "Not a true bill." After all the indictments have been considered, the work of the grand jury is ended and the cases are turned over to the court and petit jury for trial.

GREELY, ADOLPHUS WASHINGTON.—American Arctic explorer and for a time chief of the U. S. Signal Service and in charge of the meteorological records at Washington, with the rank of brigadier-general. He was born at Newburyport, Mass., in 1844, and served as a volunteer in the Civil War. In 1881 he was appointed to command an expedition, sent out by the U. S. Government, to the Arctic regions to establish posts of scientific and meteorological observation. This he did in the "Proteus," which left St. John's, Newfoundland, on July 7, 1881. Reaching Discovery Harbor on Aug. 12, here Greely established his chief station. Two of his party, Lieut. Lockwood and Sergt. Brainerd, with a detachment of the expedition, penetrated as far north as lat.  $83^{\circ} 24\frac{1}{2}'$ , long.  $40^{\circ} 56\frac{1}{2}'$  W., the highest latitude heretofore attained. Compelled by the failure of expeditions to reach him, Greely began a retreat southward in Aug., 1883, and in the following June he and six survivors of his party were rescued by Commander Winfield Schley, having lost 18 of his men.

GREELY EXPEDITION.—Lieut. Charles Weyprecht, of the Austrian navy, who discovered Franz Josef Land, conceived the idea of establishing a series of circumpolar stations from which simultaneous investigations of ocean-currents, the origin and progress of storms and other polar phenomena might be made. Scientific men throughout this country and Europe indorsed this plan. It could only be carried out by the united action of the civilized nations and in May, 1881, it was announced that eight stations had been pledged by various gov-

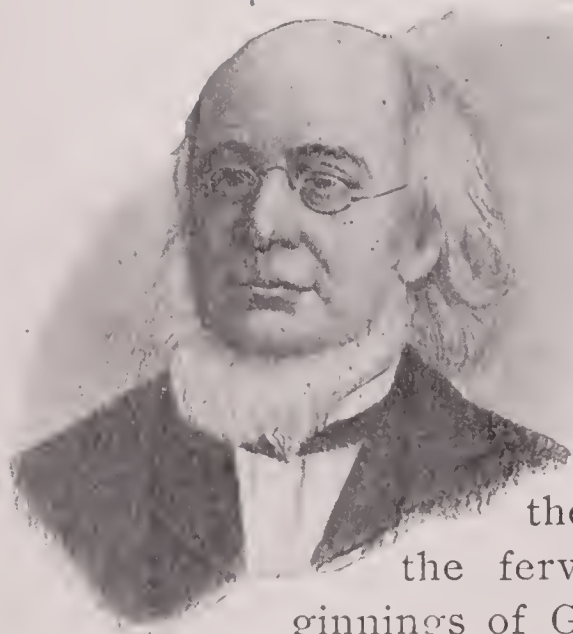
ernments, two of which were to be supported by the U. S. Lieut. A. W. Greely was chosen by the U. S. Government to command the expedition of 24 men which was to establish a station on Lady Franklin Bay. They sailed from St. John's, Newfoundland, July 7, 1881, in the steamship "Proteus," which was to take them to their destination and return. Stores for two years were carried. Aug. 12, they landed on the shore of Discovery Harbor, Lady Franklin Bay, and Aug. 18, the "Proteus" left Greely and his party, from whom the civilized world heard nothing more until three years later, when the survivors were rescued by a relief expedition under the command of Commander (now Rear-admiral) Winfield Scott Schley, U. S. N. It was understood before Greely sailed that fresh supplies and recruits were to be sent to him every year. The two expeditions sent for this purpose both failed in reaching him. The second one sailed in the "Proteus," the vessel which had carried Greely two years before. She was crushed by the ice and sank, the party returning in the supply ship "Yantic." This failure caused decided alarm for the safety of the Greely party, and Congress voted ample funds to enable the Navy Department to fit out a third expedition, which cost upward of \$1,000,000. The expedition, under the command of Commander Schley, and consisting of the "Bear," "Thetis," and "Alert,"—the last presented by the British government,—and the collier "Loch Garry," sailed in Apr., 1884. June 22, 1884, the "Thetis" and "Bear" rescued Lieut. Greely and six survivors of his party, from Cape Sabine in Smith's Sound. (See SCHLEY, WINFIELD SCOTT.)



## HORACE GREELEY

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*A poor boy who became a maker of public opinion.*



HORACE GREELEY was the extreme type of the "poor boy" rising to greatness in public life. Compared with his earliest years, those of Abraham Lincoln were luxurious, in the rude plenty of the West. Seven children and their parents had to extort a living from fifty acres of land in New Hampshire, which might have been more profitably worked as a quarry than as a farm, had the plentiful "rocks" been large enough to put to any use. On this "poor farm"—to use the words of an elder Horace in describing the scene of his nativity—the later Horace was born, February 3, 1811. On both his father's

and his mother's sides, he was of Scotch-Irish descent, and so was doubly distilled from that stock which predominates America by its intellectual strength and energy, and, gathering to itself the good things of life, leaves to more emotional species the supplying of sweetness and light to the national character. "You lie, villain, you lie!" is a fair example of Greeley's heart-to-heart talks with other public men on the editorial page of the "Tribune," in the days of his ascendancy. The "villain" did not resent the fervor of the argument. He was near enough to the beginnings of Greeley to know that the crust, as hard as the granite hills of his own New Hampshire, had been formed in the many and bitter days of struggle, and familiar enough with the true Greeley to be sure that the helping hand which refused nobody was his for the asking.

Horace was a feeble-bodied child, born in privation and stunted by it from the time he opened his blinking eyes upon an inhospitable world. But the hereditary intellect was there from the very first, and though the nerveless hands could toil but little, the mind was early at work. As soon as he became old enough to have a thought for the future, he fixed his desire upon becoming a printer, a vocation that seemed a royal road to learning to one chained so close to the ground as himself. He was fourteen years old before the first step could be taken toward the realization of his towering ambition, at which time he had been for four years a casual farm laborer in Vermont—a social condition lower, if possible, than that of the meanest "poor

white" in the South. He began as 'prentice boy in a rural newspaper and job office, and when the intellectual flood-gates had been opened by his admission to the realms of light, he rose rapidly to the dizzy height of chief village politician, political economist, debater and essayist. His income grew with his importance, till he could look down upon penury from his broad tableland of board, lodging, washing and forty dollars a year. For the money he had no use, and he sent it to the family whom prosperity still shunned, though the father had moved to the wild lands of western Pennsylvania in search of it. Thither Horace followed in his twentieth year, the Vermont newspaper having tumbled into insolvency on its business side, despite the forceful editing of the young Solon. In western Pennsylvania he tramped about as a casual printer, sheltering and helping at home when, as happened most of the time, he could find no employment.

Greeley was now on the verge of manhood and determined to strike out, and his stroke took the direction of New York, which he reached, by tramping, at the end of August, 1831. He was so young looking, ragged and rustic that he was shown the door at every printing office where he sought work, and was nearly starved when he alighted upon a starvation job to which all printers were welcome without inquiry, but which few accepted and few adhered to for the finish. Greeley was one of the finishers, and met his reward in better work, at better pay, from the hands of the grateful employer. In less than eighteen months he was running a small job office for himself, with a variety of partners and quite the usual amount of ups and downs. James Gordon Bennett, with a meager present but an aspiring future, was greatly taken with Greeley, and invited him to an equal participation in the projected daily to be known as the "Herald," but Greeley thought that a daily newspaper would be too bold an undertaking for him to engage in and declined. On his own account he started the "New Yorker," a weekly that attained a large circulation and gave him an immense reputation, but was always a loss on the pecuniary side. In his twenty-seventh year he married, and married happily, though his wife and he, between them, shared nearly all the "isms" extant or which, from time to time, arose to strut briefly upon the stage.



In 1838 Thurlow Weed and William H. Seward made Greeley editor of the "Jeffersonian," a Whig organ, or "broadside," published at Albany. For a campaign sheet, it was notably solid and intellectual, and so appealed to the very class to which the Whig leaders



looked. Weed, a past-master in the art of political management, and Seward, a self-seeking statesman with at least a touch of genius, thought that the "Jeffersonian" did much for the Whig interest in New York state, out of which Weed grew rich and Seward famous.

They paid Greeley in flattery, to which he was not insensible; but they paid him little else, and years afterward Greeley, finding himself a power in the land, issued a public notice that the political firm of Seward, Weed and Greeley was dissolved. He had his full revenge in 1860, when his opposition defeated the otherwise certain nomination and probable election of Seward to the presidency. For the "log cabin and hard cider" campaign of 1840, Greeley started a weekly called the "Log Cabin," which reached a great circulation and influence, but was pecuniarily unprofitable.

Saturday, April 10, 1841, marked the appearance of a new journalistic star, the New York "Daily Tribune," launched on borrowed money, but soon attaining a commanding position. It was bright and intellectual, and aggressive enough to hold its own in the war of abusive epithets that it was then the practice of newspapers to shower upon each other. The virulence of the attacks upon the "Tribune" remain a tribute to its importance and success. Ten years afterward came the "Weekly Tribune," by which, and by Greeley, the rural population of the free states, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, learned to swear. In 1842 Greeley valued the good-will and plant of the "Tribune" at four thousand dollars, and sold a half interest in them at half that amount; but thirty years later, actual sales showed that the value had multiplied two hundred and forty times, and the difference was mainly due to Greeley. He was the sole owner at the beginning, but owned less than a one-seventeenth interest when he died. That tells the story of his financial incapacity. In fact, he had parted with the controlling interest in less than a year, and within seven years was a minority owner. But for nearly twenty years he was the most valuable asset of the "Tribune." He always had his own say to the last, but he did not always have the entire say. The first evidence that the absolute control had passed from him was the series of "On to Richmond" articles that he did not approve, and which was the prime cause of the premature and disastrous first Bull Run campaign. It was Greeley that gave importance to the "Tribune" editorials, and the public and the national authorities did not know, till the information was too late



to be useful, that the "Tribune" was not always, and in all things, Horace Greeley.

First as a Whig and afterward as a Republican, Greeley, with the "Tribune," played a large part in the political history of New York and the Union. He would have been pleased to fill more public offices than the few and unimportant ones that make up the sum of his political services. For public office, however, he was quite unfit, his disposition and much of his conduct being erratic and freakish, while his quarrelsomeness and eccentricity would have prevented him from having a political following. His importance lay in his principles and his power of expounding them, and there is no good reason to believe that he could have successfully illustrated them in action. Besides, he was always too much scattered to be in a situation to do more than talk about things; for his interests and sympathies took in the whole range of the human life of his day, not only as it was, but as he, or somebody who had his ear for the moment, thought it ought to be, or might be made. Thus, while he was in his heyday a man of great influence, he was never a man of direct authority. He could trouble things that were being done or those that were doing them, and he could prevent the doing of things or the advancement of individuals; but he could not carry his own measures or his own men. His power consisted in what the large numbers of plain people who read him and heard him thought and felt about him, for intellectually he but little affected either public or literary men. To the rural classes throughout the North, he was a latter-day "Poor Richard," and after his death Whittier aptly eulogized him as "our second Franklin."

As a Whig, Greeley was for a high tariff and internal improvements, and his influence did much for protectionism and the opening and building up of the great West. His theoretical tariff was a scheme under which, by the coöperative action of the whole community, wages would be high, employment abundant, farmers', merchants', and manufacturers' profits always good, and workingmen's wives able to perform their kitchen duties in expensive silk dresses of home manufacture, without distressing the means of their highly protected and highly paid husbands. The Greeley tariff has never yet been in operation anywhere on earth, but his effective exposition and advocacy of it created and expanded a protectionist sentiment, under which many tariffs that were high, but not altogether of the Greeley pattern, have been carried. He was an early advocate of a railway across the continent, and of free homesteads to actual settlers, to fill up the space between the Mississippi and the Pacific. The West never had another such a friend and helper.



As a Free-Soil Whig, Greeley, of course, was against the Texas annexation, the Mexican War, the foisting of Zachary Taylor upon the party as its presidential candidate, the compromise of 1850, the fugitive slave law, the proslavery claim in Kansas and the Dred Scott decision. The nomination of General Scott, in 1852, was the last act of the party, which went to pieces after a vain effort to shift the issue from slavery to something or anything else by the so-called Know-nothing movement, which Greeley fought. On the formation of the Republican party, the "Tribune" became its chief organ, and, as Greeley was an uncompromising Abolitionist, the slaveholders were right in looking for bad weather ahead. The new party, however, was unfortunate in its first nomination, being obliged to take over Fremont from one of the two factions into which the Know-nothings had split. Greeley was not particularly enthusiastic about Fremont, and the campaign managers bought space in the "New York Herald" in a vain effort to carry the state.



Greeley was shut out from the New York delegation to the Republican national convention of 1860, because of his implacable hostility to Seward, the favorite son of the Empire State, and far and away the leading candidate. But he got into the convention as a delegate from Oregon and advocated the nomination of Edward Bates, of Missouri, whose vote on the first ballot fell below those of Seward, Lincoln, Cameron and Chase, and represented hardly more than a tenth of the convention. Greeley's support, however, helped to carry his main object of defeating Seward, and during the campaign the "Tribune" did its very best for Lincoln, who was powerfully aided by the weekly edition, with its great and influential circulation.

When the Cotton States, after Lincoln's election, seceded and showed that they seriously meant to try the experiment of separation, Greeley was for letting them "depart in peace," preferring a division of the country to a government pinned together by bayonets. This support of secession from so radical a source, with other influential tendencies moving in the same direction at the North, would probably have secured the establishment of the Southern Confederacy, with larger bounds than it ever had, if it had not been for the impatience and arrogance of the secession leaders, which brought on a collision and so aroused the North to a desperate struggle for the Union. To this struggle Greeley was, of course, committed, and from the very beginning he was for striking instantly at slavery, the bottom, though not the only cause, of the trouble; for Greeley's favorite policy of a high tariff had nearly broken up the Union, at a time when the slavery

question was still dormant under the Missouri Compromise of 1820. President Lincoln appreciated the force of Greeley's demand for a blow at slavery in the seceding states, but could not meet his wishes; while the border states, the army and navy, and much the greater part of popular sentiment at the North, were insistent that the war should be exclusively conducted for the restoration of the Union. Personally attacked by Greeley in the "Tribune," Mr. Lincoln defended himself publicly and patiently, meantime leading the popular mind steadily toward the contemplation of emancipation as a necessary consequence of the war, till in the latter part of September, 1862, he felt strong enough to issue his Emancipation Proclamation. That ended the slavery dispute with Greeley, whose heat and haste unquestionably had their part in assuring freedom and advancing the dawn of it.

Later in the progress of the war, Greeley attacked the President smartly for not smoothing the path to a conference with some distinguished men of the Southern Confederacy, who had assembled in Canada for the professed purpose of opening the way to a restoration of the Union. Lincoln met this attack by a public invitation to anybody commissioned from the South, however informally, to negotiate for or discuss a restoration of the Union, to come freely to Washington for courteous treatment and a fair hearing. He followed this up by appointing Greeley a special commissioner to go to Canada for a conference with the alleged envoys, putting upon him no other limitations than a recognition of the Constitutional supremacy of the Federal government and the maintenance of the irrevocable Emancipation Proclamation, with or without compensation, as the Congress of the restored Union might decide. As Greeley had the virtue of always believing everything he said, he accepted the appointment and went to Canada. Though he had often been burned and hanged in effigy at the South, he was well received by his hosts, none of whom had a shadow of authority to speak for the Confederate government or any insurgent state, and all of whom were personally quite sure that the first and inflexible condition of peace would have to be a recognition of Southern independence, though, with that accorded, the Southern people were ready to deal with the Northern people as true and beloved brethren.

Thus the mission was not wholly fruitless, for it proved that the original bitterness had passed away in the mutual respect born of a prolonged and heroic conflict. Even before Greeley's visit to Canada, the soldiers of the two armies had anticipated the final reconciliation by their friendly comradeship in the intervals of actual collision. The mission proved, too, that the war must be fought out, which, in the interest of posterity, was the best thing that could happen. Greeley's



intervention in the matter had this further consequence, that it made the government alert to every indication that the war might be stopped; hence, the fruitless voluntary mission of the venerable Francis P. Blair to Richmond, and the subsequent Hampton Roads conference, personally attended by Lincoln, of whom the Confederate commissioners had golden words to say on their return to Richmond.

Though many of Greeley's friends took part in the movement of 1864 to prevent the renomination of Lincoln, he did not directly participate in it. He foresaw that it could not defeat the renomination, made sure in any event by the immense power and patronage of the administration, and he was not prepared to exchange Lincoln, with the war unfinished, for a Democratic President. Happily for all concerned, the party breach was healed before the election, and Greeley's name at the head of the Republican electoral ticket was an assurance that Lincoln was to receive the full vote of his party in the most important state.

Radical as he had been against slavery and rebellion, Greeley was firmly against persecution or confiscation as soon as the South was prostrate. He did not approve of the singling out of Jefferson Davis, as the one of many leaders of secession and rebellion for exemplary punishment. Erratic as he usually was, he had been free from the hysteria that conceived the Confederate President to have been the head of the conspiracy to assassinate Lincoln, and his sense of humanity and justice revolted from the indignity of putting fetters upon the aged and feeble prisoner, and confining him in the casemate of a fortress. When, therefore, the indictment for treason was kept over the head of the prisoner without trial, till the Federal court at Richmond decided to release the accused on bail, Greeley went to Richmond and qualified as one of the sureties that Davis would appear when the case should be called for trial, which everybody knew would be never. It was Greeley's impulsive way of condemning what he believed to be the unjust treatment of Davis, for whom he had no personal regard. But the act caused an outburst against him from members of his own party, which alarmed the shareholders of the "Tribune" and demoralized the publishers of his "American Conflict," the subscribers to which popular work canceled their subscriptions by thousands. He was summoned to show cause why he should not be expelled from the Union League Club, and replied publicly in a defiant letter, promising to be present at the expulsion meeting and give his opponents a "square, stand-up fight"; challenging them, at the same time, to be all in attendance, to hand down their names to infamy. The letter took all the fight out of the offended members of the club, and the expulsion proceedings were abandoned. Popular

feeling came over to Greeley's side, the quicker and stronger because of the untruthful and spiteful abuse aimed at his whole career, his motives and his character. The Southern people, in the midst of their poverty and political harassments, found time to be grateful for the disclosure to them of the true Greeley, who, after all, was something more and other than the blustering, scolding, crack-brained fanatic they had always supposed him to be.

President Grant's persistence in the San Domingo annexation scheme, from which the party had tried to free itself without unduly hurting his feelings, completed Greeley's alienation from his administration. Carl Schurz, then a Senator from Missouri, as the most prominent leader of the Republican malcontents in Congress, became also the leader outside. From his state went out the call for a national convention of liberal Republicans at Cincinnati, on May 1, 1872. Greeley was willing, and more than willing, to become the candidate of that convention against Grant's reëlection. So were Charles Francis Adams of Massachusetts; Chief-Justice Chase of Ohio; Senator Trumbull, Judge Davis, and General Palmer, all of Illinois; General J. D. Cox of Ohio; and B. Gratz Brown of Missouri. Adams had the best lead, and Greeley the most anxiety, for the nomination. In the end they were the only candidates seriously considered, and Adams lost because he showed some distrust of the movement, and was opposed by influential Democrats who desired a candidate that their party could indorse. In the Democratic convention which followed, Greeley received six hundred and eighty-six out of seven hundred and thirty-two votes, but the forty-six votes against him were all votes of discontent. The discontent found open expression in a straight-out convention, which nominated Charles O'Connor, of New York, as a candidate upon whom rebellious Democrats could throw away their votes.

Mr. Greeley personally took the stump, contrary to established usage, and popular interest in the long-famous man brought him large audiences; but he proved the weakest possible of candidates. There was a large disaffection of Democrats, and thousands of Republicans who revered him personally were afraid to have so erratic and eccentric a character in the White House. The vilification heaped upon him by his former party associates hurt him more than the loss of the presidency; yet that was a very heavy blow. In a total vote of close upon six and a half millions, the majority against him exceeded three million, six hundred thousand. After the election he resumed the editorship of the "Tribune," but, being attacked by softening of the brain, he was removed to a sanitarium, where he died on November 29, 1872. His wife had died near the close of the contest and that bereavement had greatly shaken him.



Greeley's slovenly dress, rustic look and awkward manner had been so much caricatured, that the popular idea of his personal appearance and behavior was much exaggerated. His actual presence and bearing gave no inspiration to mirth or disrespect, and his shrill voice was quickly forgotten in attention to what it uttered. His "old white hat" had been the sport of critics and adversaries, and the boast of friends and admirers. But none doubted that with his death a white soul had returned to its source, spotless as when it came into the world. Nor in his contentious life could it have been denied that always "he was a true gentleman at heart." These are the words of a Roman Catholic eulogist, who could have had no sectarian leaning toward the subject of them.

Mr. Alexander K. McClure, the veteran journalist, in an article which contains some personal recollections of Mr. Greeley, relates this incident: —

"The best opportunity I had to study Horace Greeley, and see him as he really was, occurred in 1855. I was then living in Chambersburg, and publishing a weekly paper that was widely circulated and generally regarded as of some political importance. Being officially connected with the agricultural society of our county, I invited Greeley to come to Chambersburg and deliver an address at the fair, and proposed to pay him fifty dollars, a sum then regarded as very liberal compensation for traveling five hundred miles, and giving three days' time to deliver a speech. He was my guest while attending the fair, and I had an excellent opportunity to learn from him all that could be gathered about himself. His address was plain, practical, and impressive, and was very well received by our farmers, who welcomed him in a most hospitable manner. The occasion was made quite a brilliant one, by Governor Pollock and Secretary Curtin (afterward governor) appearing at the fair when Greeley was speaking. So much interest was felt in his address that I wrote him soon afterward, asking him whether he could not give me a copy of it. He responded by sending me some twenty-five or thirty pages of the most unintelligible manuscript I have ever struggled with, in more than half a century of journalistic experience. It took all hands about the office and several outside experts to decipher it, but it was accomplished with reasonable accuracy and I published it in my paper with pardonable pride. In his letter sent with the manuscript, he said: 'Dear Mac, you remorseless cormorant, I have written myself nearly blind to furnish you the speech, and think you should send me thirty dollars for it.' Of course, the suggestion was a command, and the treasury of the 'Franklin Repository' was depleted to that extent for Greeley's address. The great editor always had an eye for business."

GREEN, NORVIN.—Born at New Albany, Ind., 1818; died at Louisville, Ky., 1893. A noted financier. About 1854 he became president of the Southwestern Telegraph Co., and subsequently vice-president of the American Telegraph Co., and of the Western Union Telegraph Co. From 1869 to 1873 he was president of the Louisville, Cincinnati, and Lexington Railroad.

GREENBACK PARTY.—Opposition to the resumption of specie payment caused a political party to be organized at Indianapolis, Ind., Nov. 25, 1874, called the Greenback party. The platform adopted advocated the withdrawal of all national and state bank currency and the substitution therefor of paper currency or greenbacks, which should be exchangeable for interconvertible bonds bearing interest sufficiently high to keep them at par with gold, and that coin should only be used in payment of interest on the national debt. In 1876 the Greenback party nominated Peter Cooper, of N. Y., for President. He received 81,740 votes, mostly from the Western States. In 1878 the Greenback party united with the Labor Reform party, the two forming the Greenback-Labor party. The new party in their platform adopted at Toledo, Feb. 22, 1878, reiterated the demands of the original Greenback party, and in addition declared for an 8-hour law, prohibition of Chinese immigration and against grants of land to railroads and special grants to corporations. Fourteen members of Congress were elected on this platform. June 9, 1880, at their national convention held in Chicago, they nominated Gen. James B. Weaver, of Iowa, for President, and B. J. Chambers, of Texas, for Vice-president. Their popular vote reached 307,740. In 1884, with Gen. B. F. Butler as their candidate, they polled only 133,825 votes.

GRESHAM, WALTER QUINTON.—(1832–1895.) An American soldier, jurist, and statesman, born in Harrison County, Indiana. He was admitted to the bar in 1853. He served in several battles in the Civil War, and his conduct was notably gallant. He rose to the rank of major-general. Grant made him United States judge for the district of Indiana (1869); Arthur appointed him postmaster-general (1882) in which position he opposed the Louisiana lottery. In 1884 he was secretary of the treasury, but he soon resigned to become United States judge of the seventh circuit, which office he filled until 1893. He supported the Democratic party in 1892, and the following year, Cleveland made him secretary of state; in this capacity he conducted the adjustment of the dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela.

GRIMES, JAMES WILSON.—Born at Deering, N. H., 1816; died at Burlington, Iowa, 1872. He was elected governor of Iowa in 1854, and



U. S. senator from Iowa in 1859. He was one of the few Republicans who protested against the conviction of President Andrew Jackson.

GROW, GALUSHA A.—An American statesman, born in Ashford, Conn., in 1824. He graduated from Amherst (1844); was admitted to the bar (1847) and was member of Congress for Pennsylvania (1851). He was then the youngest member of the House; and his consecutive service for so many years made him "Father of the House." He was elected a Democrat, but in 1854 left that party on account of the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. He was speaker (1861-63), and has served as delegate to Republican conventions many times. He was elected congressman-at-large from Pennsylvania (1894-1903).

GUANTANAMO BAY, CUBA.—Situated about 35 miles east of Santiago. Here, on June 10, 1898, was the first landing in force of United States troops in the war with Spain. The Spanish fort having been silenced by the fire of the U. S. cruisers and gunboats, a party of 600 marines landed and formed Camp McCalla (named after the commander of the "Marblehead"). On the 11th and 12th of June, the Spaniards opened fire on the troops in camp from the neighboring woods, where the latter assumed the defensive, assisted by the U. S. warships which shelled the woods, and on the 14th the Spanish were forced from their concealment and retreated to the town of Caimanera. From here they were subsequently driven out by the shells of the U. S. cruisers. (See SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.)

GUASIMAS, LAS.—A region in Cuba, about 3 miles from Siboney, noted in the Spanish-American War as the scene of an encounter (June 24, 1898) between Gen. Young's brigade of dismounted cavalry and a Spanish force of about 2,800 men. The U. S. brigade consisted of a total of 965 men composed of the "Rough Riders" under Colonel Wood, the 1st U. S. cavalry, and the 10th U. S. (colored) cavalry. The result of the affair was to drive the Spaniards from their position in full flight toward Santiago. The feature of the engagement was the Rough Riders' charge up the hill occupied by the enemy under the gallant lead of Lieut.-Col. (now President) Roosevelt. The American loss was 16 killed and 49 wounded; the Spanish loss has not accurately been ascertained, though 39 Spaniards were found dead on the field, besides the wounded.

HALE, JOHN PARKER.—(1806-1873.) An American statesman, born in Rochester, N. H. He was admitted to the bar (1830); member of Congress (1843-45); United States senator (1846-53) and (1855-65). The Free-soil party nominated him for President in 1852. Lincoln made him minister to Spain in 1865.

HALIFAX COMMISSION.—Composed of representatives of the U. S. and Great Britain, who met at Halifax, Nova Scotia, in 1877, to determine the amount this country should pay for the fishing privileges its citizens enjoyed under the treaty of 1871. The Canadians claimed that the reciprocity clause of the latter instrument had worked to their decided disadvantage and to the very marked advantage of American fishermen. The commission made an award of \$5,500,000 in favor of Great Britain, and Congress appropriated that sum.

HAMLIN, HANNIBAL.—(1809–1891.) An American statesman, born in Paris, Me. He was admitted to the bar (1838); state representative (1836–40) and (1847); member of Congress (1842–44); United States senator (1845–57). He was a Democrat up to 1856, when he joined the Republican party. He was elected Vice-president with Lincoln in 1860. Johnson made him collector of customs of the port of Boston. He was United States senator (1869–81); and minister to Spain (1881–82).

HANNA, MARCUS ALONZO.—A prominent Republican senator, born in Lisbon, Ohio, in 1837, died at Washington, D. C., in February, 1904. He entered the wholesale grocery house of Hanna, Garretson and Co. at Cleveland, of which his father was the senior partner. He remained there until the business closed in 1867. He then entered the coal and iron business and founded the firm of M. A. Hanna and Co. He had very large mercantile interests in several directions in Cleveland. He was a prominent figure in Republican conventions since 1884. He was chairman of the national Republican convention (1904). He was appointed U. S. senator in 1897, and was re-elected in 1898 and again in 1899. His place in the senate was taken by Congressman Dick of Akron, Ohio.

HARLAN, JAMES.—(1820–1899.) An American statesman, born in Clark Co., Ill. He was superintendent of public instruction for Iowa (1847); president of Iowa Wesleyan University (1853); elected to United States Senate (1855, 1861, and 1866). In 1865, Lincoln made him secretary of the interior, but resigned to re-enter the Senate. He was president of the Iowa University in 1869.

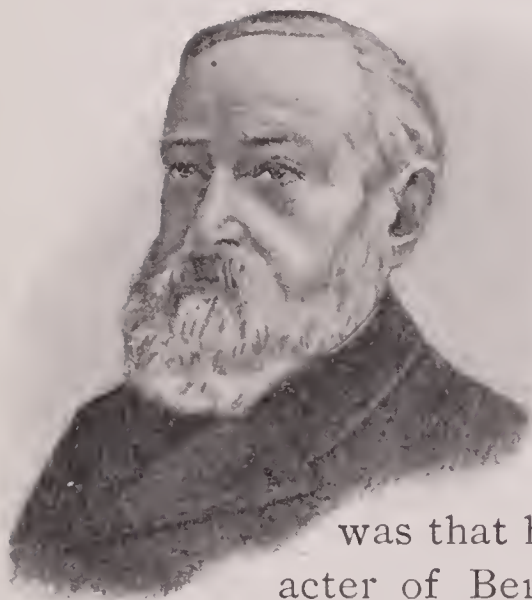
HARLAN, JOHN MARSHALL.—Associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, under commission dated November 29, 1877. He was born in Boyle Co., Ky., in 1833. He is a graduate of Center College, Ky., and of Transylvania law school. He practiced his profession at Frankfort, Ky., previous to the Civil War. He was under General George H. Thomas until the death of his father in 1863. He afterward practiced in Louisville, Ky., and has filled prominent state offices.



## BENJAMIN HARRISON

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*An honor to his family name and fame.*



WHEN the second Harrison was a candidate for the presidency on the Republican ticket, in 1888, the political squibs and cartoons of the opposition were given to depreciatory comparison of the grandson with the grandfather, that hero of the "Tippecanoe," log cabin, hard cider and whirlwind campaign of nearly fifty years before.

This was not so very uncomplimentary to the younger and later man, for the first President Harrison, if not a great man, had been a good, honest and sensible one, who had won true military laurels against savage redskins and disciplined redcoats, and had wisely and well governed the western territory in troublous times. The nomination of "Old Tippecanoe," in 1840, was indeed the best the Whig party ever made, and when his grandson came under the fierce light that beats upon a presidential candidate, and the worst that could be found to say against him was that he was not his grandfather, that was a tribute to the character of Benjamin Harrison. He was standing upon his own merit, and his merit seems to have been so high that nothing detrimental was even invented against him.

Benjamin Harrison was a proud man, though he made no outward or offensive manifestation of it; for the general coldness of his demeanor was entirely natural, being due to his unemotional temperament, and an unrelenting sincerity that forbade him to affect anything that he did not feel. His great-grandfather, after whom he was named, was a public man of high distinction in Revolutionary days; a signer of the Declaration of Independence, a member of the committee that framed it, and the reporter of it to Congress; five times a member of the Continental Congress, and governor of his native state of Virginia. His youngest son became the famous "Tippecanoe," and though there was then a lapse in the family celebrity for a season, the latest of the Harrisons never forgot the broad national background on which much of the family history had been painted; nor, despite his own western birth and rearing, was he unmindful of his Virginia origin. Moreover, in that sturdy love of liberty that distinguished all his life, and found expression in a declaration of sympathy with the Boers of South

Africa, when the very shadow of death was upon him, he saw no occasion for regret that the refugee founder of the family in America was that "Regicide Harrison" who had voted in the English parliament for the death of Charles the First.

Harrison was born in Ohio, in 1833, and his early education, despite the moderate circumstances of his father, was very carefully looked after, as was due to a scion of a house that had always stood well for intellectual ability and training, over and above its important contributions of military and political service to the country. At fourteen he was placed in a private academy, whence, two years later, he passed to the Miami University, a small but good college, where he spent three industrious and helpful years, and graduated with honorable distinction. He was then a young man of nineteen, well educated for his age, well behaved, of good morals and manners, sound and sensible, and with enough of the right kind of ancestry at his back to cause people to regard him with kindly interest. He obtained admission to the bar after two years' study of the law at Cincinnati, and having made a marriage of affection while still a law student, he went to Indianapolis as soon as his admission to practice was obtained, to try there for such fame and fortune as the world might be induced to vouchsafe to him. The choice proved not a bad one, and as a life-long resident of the pleasant and prosperous inland city, the young migrant from Ohio had no reason ever to lament the turn his footsteps had taken.

For six years Harrison gained a moderate livelihood from a general practice of the law. Then the local prominence that he had won politically, the good opinion held of him, and the influence of his name and antecedents, caused him to be nominated by the Republicans for reporter to the supreme court of Indiana. He was elected, and the office increased his professional standing. On the breaking out of the Civil War, Harrison, then in his twenty-eighth year, promptly volunteered, and was soon promoted to the command of a regiment. His first active service was in assisting to repel Bragg's invasion of Kentucky, in the fall of 1862. After this he served in the defense of Nashville, and early in 1864 his regiment was made part of General Hooker's corps, in the vicinity of Chattanooga, and Harrison for a time commanded a brigade. His careful discipline and instruction had made an excellent regiment of the Seventieth Indiana, and as a brigade commander his enterprise and efficiency greatly pleased Hooker, who recommended him strongly for promotion; but in the press of colonels everywhere to be made brigadiers, Harrison was passed over. In Sherman's Atlanta campaign, he was, within the compass of a few weeks, particularly distinguished successively at Resaca, New Hope



Church, Kennesaw Mountain and Peachtree Creek, and after the last-named fight, Hooker, unwilling that his own want of influence with Sherman and Grant should prejudice Harrison, wrote directly to the War Department about him in the following terms:—

“My attention was first attracted to this young officer by the superior excellence of his brigade in discipline and instruction, the result of his labor, skill and devotion. With more foresight than I have witnessed in any other officer of his experience, he seemed to act upon the principle that success depended upon the thorough preparation, in discipline and esprit, of his command for conflict, more than on any influence that could be exerted on the field itself, and when collision came, his command vindicated his wisdom as much as his valor. In all of the achievements of the Twentieth Corps in that campaign, Colonel Harrison bore a conspicuous part.”

This obtained him the honorary rank of brigadier-general by brevet. Atlanta captured, Harrison was sent home to beat up recruits, a service for which he was well fitted at a time when negro substitutes for white conscripts were worth a thousand dollars apiece. In December, 1864, he commanded a brigade of reserves in the battle at Nashville and took part in the pursuit of Hood. To rejoin his own regiment at Savannah, he went to New York for passage on a transport, and there had a severe attack of scarlet fever. He finally caught up with his regiment in North Carolina, became a brigade commander, took part in the grand review at Washington, and he and his regiment were then mustered out.

General Harrison resumed his duties as reporter to the supreme court of Indiana, but declined a third nomination in 1867, and went earnestly into the practice of law. Indiana was a doubtful state, and Harrison was called into service in the two Grant campaigns of 1868 and 1872. In 1876 he was the favorite candidate of his party for the governorship, but refused to stand. Unfortunately for the party, its nominee had to be withdrawn under fire in the midst of the campaign, and through fear of injury to the presidential ticket throughout the country, Harrison agreed to lead the forlorn hope, which he did with gallantry, though not with success. His foredoomed defeat did him no damage, and he went back to professional life with the esteem of his political opponents. He willingly accepted an appointment on the Mississippi River Commission, for his state had a large interest in the improvement of the great waterway. In 1880 he led the Indiana delegation over to the support of Garfield, and so helped to break the desperate attempt to carry the Republican national convention for Grant. After the nomination he stood by Garfield when Grant's sullen friends

showed a disposition to let the election go by default, but he declined to enter Garfield's Cabinet. Having been elected to the United States Senate, he took his seat at the time of Garfield's inauguration.

In 1887 Harrison was again in private life, as the result of a reversion to Democracy by his changeable state, but his service of six years in the Senate had greatly advanced his position in his party, and there was much serious talk of him as a presidential candidate. Blaine, who had been defeated by Cleveland in a very close vote in New York in 1884, still had a strong grasp upon his party, but first in January and then in May, 1888, he wrote from Europe, where he was making a long sojourn, that he could not and would not accept a nomination. When the national convention met, in June, at Chicago, Senator Sherman was the most prominent but a hopeless candidate, and Gresham of Indiana was the equally hapless favorite of a band of reformers numbering about a seventh part of the delegates. Depew, Alger, Allison and Harrison led among the dozen of minor candidates, but when the supporters of Sherman and Gresham had spent their strength, the availability of Harrison, carefully nursed from the beginning by a tireless body of able managers, secured him the nomination, and he defeated President Cleveland, though the latter had a slightly larger popular vote.

The great achievement of Harrison's term was the McKinley tariff, so badly received on its passage that the Republicans were swept almost clean out of the House of Representatives at the election which occurred soon afterward. Harrison was such an extreme protectionist that with him no high tariff bill could be bad, though one might be better than another. He also approved the dependent pension bill, which for the first time conferred pensions for death and disability not resulting from military or naval service, and gave such an extension to the pension list that the cost of pensions speedily rose to more than two dollars a year per head of the population. Harrison realized the plunge he was taking and thought about it seriously, and his final conclusion was that the country could stand the expense and ought to stand it.

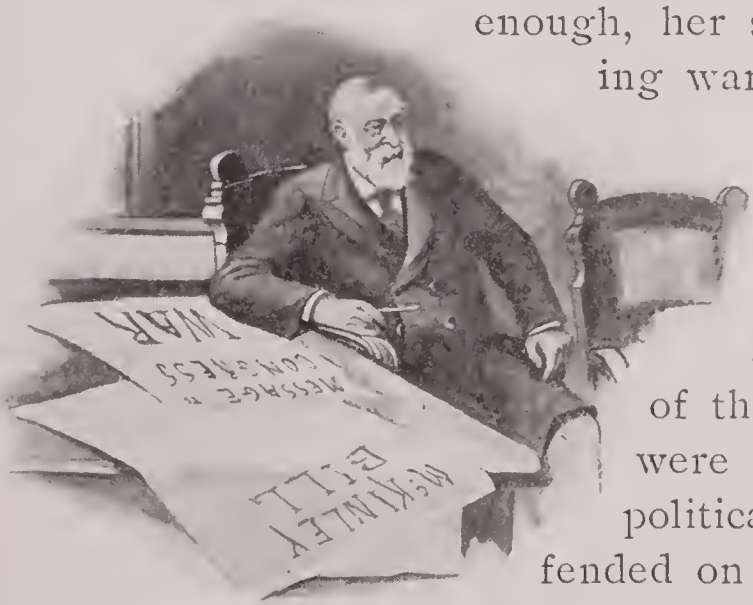
Though the McKinley tariff had greatly reduced the revenue of the government, Congress was very lavish in appropriations, and the Treasury began to get distressed before the presidential election of 1892. As a bond issue in time of peace would have been fatal to the party in power, the resources and devices of the Treasury were stretched to avert it, and all the ill effects of low revenue and high





expenditure were thrown over to the next administration, which thus caught the odium of a situation it had not created.

Foreign affairs were troublesome in Harrison's time, and gave him much personal worry and labor. There was not that cordiality of confidence between Blaine and himself that there ought to have been, and Blaine, whose health was rapidly declining, was sometimes lethargic when he ought to have been prompt, sometimes impulsive when he ought to have been deliberate. Much to Harrison's surprise, the country had nearly drifted into a naval war with England in the Bering Sea sealing waters, before he knew how far the matter had been carried by sheer procrastination and mismanagement, and though he set matters right at once when he discovered how wrong they were, he was subjected to both humiliation and anxiety in the adjustment. In Chile, too, diplomatic mismanagement had involved the United States in questionable relations with Balmaceda, who had sought by violence to establish a dictatorship in himself. When he was overthrown by the constitutional authorities and had absolved himself from further responsibility by suicide, the position of the United States was mortifying, if not humiliating. Relief came in an unpleasant way, by a mob attack upon a party of seamen from an American cruiser in Valparaiso, who were but languidly aided, if at all, by the local police. Chile, following the example of the United States in such matters, was slow to acknowledge national responsibility for the killing and wounding that occurred, but Harrison, who was a first-term President aspiring to a second term, naturally took a very firm position, and brushed aside the arguments that the United States, as a big country, could afford to stand upon. Chile at last submitted unconditionally rather than go to war, and, awkwardly enough, her submission arrived just as Harrison had a ringing war message nearly ready for Congress.



As the message was too good a thing to be lost, it was finished and sent to Congress, and while that body and the country were huzzaing over it, the submission of Chile was disclosed, and being popularly ascribed to the telegraphing of the message to Chile, the huzzas over the message were redoubled. Harrison was greatly censured by political purists for this bit of stage play, but was defended on the ground that nobody was really hurt by it, whereas his great predecessor, Madison, as the agreed price of a renomination, had actually engaged the country in a war to which he was conscientiously opposed. These two examples, by men much above the public average, prove the demoralizing consequences of a

short-term presidency, with eligibility to reëlection. "One man, one term" would doubtless have saved both Madison and Harrison from a temptation to which almost if not every first-term President has yielded in one form or another.

In New Orleans some Italian subjects, members of the "Mafia," were lynched by a mob of infuriated citizens. The Italian government took an attitude similar to our own in the Chilean case, and we took the Chilean attitude. Italy recalled her minister and we recalled ours, and when the excited journals of both countries had respectively planned and fought a bloody and successful war, and the affair had lost political value for both sides, we paid an acceptable indemnity to Italy and there was a diplomatic love feast between the two governments. As humbug constitutes an important part of current politics, it may perhaps be said that there was no great excess of it in either the Chilean or Italian affair.

So far as Harrison was concerned, he conducted his administration with as much fidelity, dignity, high purpose and laborious devotion of days and nights to public duty as any President since the time of Lincoln, and his renomination was a fit tribute from the politicians who had shared the responsibilities, the honors and emoluments of party affiliation with him. But by the reverse swing of the political pendulum he was beaten at the election by Mr. Cleveland, whom he, himself, had defeated four years before. He went back to an industrious private life, with generous attention to the calls of public duty. His eight years of survivorship of his great office were his best. His heart had always been in the right place, and his head was the better for the experience and discipline he had undergone. He belonged henceforth to his country and his country belonged to him. People remembered that he was the third of a distinguished line, and to their reminder of it he answered that the only family inheritance was a good name, which he hoped to keep and hand on untarnished. He talked love of country and the individual duties of citizenship to old and young, in formal phrase and in familiar conversation. Much of his time after leaving the presidency was given to an exposition of the Constitution, and its practical application in the organization and operation of government, and to a glorification of the national flag and the freedom which it represents.

Mr. Harrison's death, which occurred in March, 1901, after a brief illness, was sincerely and universally regretted. He was rightly esteemed for his lofty patriotism, his mental gifts and attainments, the graces of heart that adorned his character, and the purity of his life.



HARRISON, CARTER HENRY.—An American public man, born in Chicago, Illinois, in 1860. He graduated from Yale Law School in 1883, and practised in Chicago. Later he published the "Chicago Times." He was elected mayor of Chicago in 1897 and re-elected in 1899, 1901, and 1903. He has been active in municipal reform movements. He actively supported Byran in 1896. His father, Carter Henry Harrison, was mayor of Chicago for five terms and was assassinated by a disappointed office applicant in 1893.

HAY, JOHN.—He was born in Salem, Indiana, October 8, 1838. In 1861 he became assistant secretary to President Lincoln. He was secretary of legation to France (1865-67); to Austria-Hungary and chargé d'affaires (1867-68); to Spain (1869-70); editorial writer and for seven months editor-in-chief of the "New York Tribune" (1870-75); assistant secretary of state (1879-81); president of International Sanitary Congress at Washington (1881); ambassador extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to Great Britain (1897-98); appointed secretary of state September 20, 1898. In December, 1900, he concluded with the British ambassador at Washington the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty to facilitate the construction of the Nicaragua Canal. Certain amendments to this made by the Senate caused its friendly rejection by the British government. In November, 1903, he concluded with Señor Don Bunau-Varilla the treaty with the new republic of Panama to ensure the building of the Panama Canal. His diplomatic conduct of his department in its relation to foreign powers has been invariably conducted so as to ensure peace and to secure a high place for the United States in world councils. At the outbreak of the Russian-Japanese war in 1904 he sent an official note to the Powers suggesting that the war area be confined within limited boundaries, so as to preserve the administrative entity of China.

## RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD HAYES

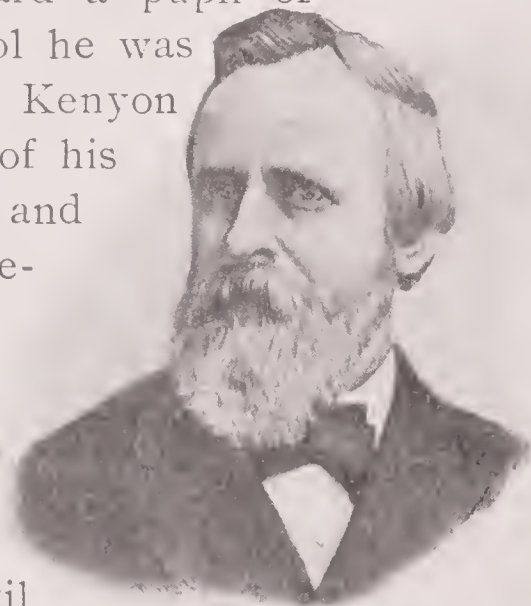
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*Made President by a vote of eight to seven.*

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES, nineteenth President, was born in Delaware, Ohio, October 4, 1822. He was a posthumous child, his father, Rutherford Hayes, having died four months before his birth. Both parents were of New England origin. The boy received his first education in the common schools, and studied Latin and Greek with Judge Sherman Finch, of Delaware. In 1836 he was sent to an academy at Norwalk, Ohio, and became soon afterward a pupil of Isaac Cobb, of Middletown, Connecticut, at whose school he was prepared for college. In 1842 he was graduated from Kenyon College, at Gambier, Ohio, and was the valedictorian of his class. He had distinguished himself in logic, in moral and mental philosophy, and in mathematics, and also as a debater in the literary societies.

Like most others who have attained the presidency, Hayes entered his political career by way of the law. Soon after his graduation, he began a course of legal study at Columbus, Ohio. In 1843 he went to the law school of Harvard University, where he remained until January, 1845. In May of that year, he was admitted to practice in the courts of Ohio. He opened an office at Sandusky, in 1846, but at the end of two years was forced by ill health to go to Texas. Having completely recovered, in the milder climate of the South, he was able, in 1849, to establish another office, this time at Cincinnati. While there he formed a circle of close friends, which included Moncure D. Conway, Salmon P. Chase, Stanley Matthews and others of note. In 1852 he married Lucy W. Webb, who developed into a woman of extraordinary strength of mind and character. In 1856 Hayes was nominated for the office of common pleas judge, but declined. Two years later he was elected city solicitor of Cincinnati by a majority of above twenty-five hundred votes, but three years later he was defeated for reelection.

The Civil War gave to Mr. Hayes the opportunity to show his mettle. He gave quick response to the first call of President Lincoln for volunteers, and enrolled himself for the three months' service, at the middle of April, 1861. A few weeks later he was commissioned





major of the Twenty-third Regiment of Ohio Volunteers, and at once took the field. His service was chiefly in western Virginia and Maryland. He was a most gallant and capable officer and soon rose to the colonelcy of his regiment. At the battle of South Mountain, in September, 1862, one of his arms was badly shattered, but he remained on the field, at the head of his regiment, until the battle was over. At the battle of Cedar Creek, in October, 1864, the gallantry of Colonel Hayes attracted so much attention that his commander, General Crook, took him by the hand and said: "Colonel, from this day you will be a brigadier-general." On the thirteenth of March, 1865, he received the rank of brevet major-general "for gallant and distinguished services during the campaign of 1864 in West Virginia, and particularly at the battles of Fisher's Hill and Cedar Creek."

Mrs. Hayes visited her husband several times when the regiment was lying in camp, and once or twice her stay was prolonged into weeks. There grew up a very strong mutual attachment between her and the members of the Twenty-third. She was unsparing in her efforts to promote their health and comfort, and her hands were always ready to minister to their needs. One day a recruit, who had just joined the regiment, complained to one of his veteran comrades that there were not pockets enough in his blouse.

"D'ye see that thar woman?" said the old soldier, pointing to Mrs. Hayes, who was sitting on a camp stool in front of the colonel's tent. The recruit said he did. "Wall," continued the veteran, who never missed an opportunity to play a joke on a raw soldier, "she's paid a big salary by the guv'ment jest to do the sewin' for this rijiment.

All ye have to do is jest to take yer blouse up to her 'n' tell her ye want her to put in a couple o' pockets, right off!" The innocent youth acted at once

upon the suggestion, while the veteran took his station behind a tree to note the progress of events, for

Colonel Hayes was sitting near his wife. The young soldier accosted Mrs. Hayes and made known his errand, with an imperious manner that nettled the colonel, who sprang to his feet and was on the point of ordering the soldier to his quarters—or, perhaps, to the guard-house. Mrs. Hayes, with a roguish smile upon her face, shook her finger at the colonel, and he resumed his seat without a word, willing to leave the adjustment of the matter in her hands.

"Certainly, my young friend," she said to the now trembling soldier, "I will be glad to do it for you. You may come up in an hour or two and get your blouse."



On his return to the company he asked one of the boys who "that lady" was, and when told that she was the colonel's wife, he was well-nigh paralyzed with surprise and fear. So great was his fright that he did not dare to go after his blouse. The boys had fine sport over his dilemma, and at length the matter reached the ears of the captain, who volunteered to go to headquarters and get the garment. He told the story to Colonel and Mrs. Hayes, and the boy was immediately sent for. In a few minutes he stood before them, pale and trembling.

"There," said Mrs. Hayes, as she handed him the blouse, "I've put in two nice pockets for you, as well, I hope, as your mother could have done it. If you ever want me to do anything more for you when I am in camp, do not be afraid to ask me."

The boy was so proud of that blouse that he would not wear it. He sent it home to his mother and drew another for use.

Immediately after the war, General Hayes entered Congress, where he served until 1867. In the fall of that year he was elected governor of Ohio, and was reelected in 1869. His administration was clean and was marked by a conspicuous devotion to the public welfare. He opposed the "spoils" system in politics, and advocated merit as the test for appointments to public positions and for the tenure of the same.

In 1876 the Republican national convention met at Cincinnati. James G. Blaine was the leading candidate for the presidential nomination, and in the early balloting he lacked less than thirty votes of the required number. There were several other candidates, whose friends stood faithfully by them, and the needed votes for Blaine could not be drawn away. The deadlock continued through six ballots. Then the name of Rutherford B. Hayes was presented, and on the seventh ballot he was nominated. The campaign was conducted by the Republicans along the lines of civil service reform, sound currency and the pacification of the South, for the wounds made by the war were yet unhealed. In regard to the financial question, General Hayes declared that "all the laws of the United States relating to the payment of public indebtedness, the legal tender notes included, constitute a pledge and a moral obligation upon the government." He insisted that at the earliest possible day the government should resume specie payment, which had been suspended early in the war as a military necessity.

The opposition candidate for President was Samuel J. Tilden, of New York. The campaign was an exciting one and all indications pointed to a close result in the voting. The first figures after the election clearly pointed to the success of Mr. Tilden. "On the face of the returns" he had a clear majority of the electoral vote. But



the Republicans set up the claim that in certain states of the South there had been suppression of the negro vote and fraud in the counting of the ballots. The result of the election depended upon the electoral votes of three states in the South which, according to the returns, had given a majority for Tilden, but which, the Republicans contended, would have gone for Hayes if the votes had been honestly cast and counted. An exceedingly heated and acrimonious struggle ensued, which threatened serious trouble to the country. The controversy continued for many weeks. Neither party would recede from its contention, and existing laws provided no way to settle the dispute. Finally, Congress passed a special act creating an electoral commission, consisting of five members of the Senate, five representatives and five justices of the Supreme Court. This body was empowered to decide upon the returns from all the states. The commission was in session for a month, and declared, by a vote of eight to seven, that Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, had been elected President, and William A. Wheeler, of New York, Vice-president.

General Hayes discharged the duties of his high office with a thoroughly honest, and conscientious purpose. The most important event of his administration was the resumption of specie payment, which was accomplished, January 1, 1879, under the directing hand of John Sherman, Secretary of the Treasury. So skillful was his management of financial affairs, that the country was brought back to a sound money basis, without the slightest jar or confusion to business.

Mrs. Hayes, as mistress of the White House, had the strength of principle to banish entirely the use of wine at the official dinners. For this she was strongly commended by the friends of temperance throughout the country. General and Mrs. Hayes retired from the White House, March 4, 1881, and went at once to their home in Fremont, Ohio. He died there in 1893. His death was soon followed by that of his wife.

**HAYMARKET RIOT.**—A riot which took place at Haymarket Square, Chicago, May 4, 1886, involving the police and a mob of anarchists. An open-air meeting, in which certain labor troubles were under discussion was in progress. The police attempted to break up the meeting because of the inflammatory utterances of some of the speakers. During the fight which ensued a bomb was thrown and 7 policemen were killed and 60 wounded. Albert R. Parsons, August Spies, Adolph Fischer, George Engel, Michael Schwab, Louis Lingg, Samuel Fielden, and Oscar W. Neebe, prominent anarchists, were arrested and tried for complicity in the outrage. The case attracted universal attention,

and resulted in the conviction of all of the accused. Parsons, Spies, Fischer, and Engel were hanged Nov. 11, 1887. Lingg escaped the gallows by committing suicide while in prison. Fielden and Schwab were sentenced to imprisonment for life, and Neebe for 15 years. These were pardoned by Gov. Altgeld in 1893.

HENDERSON, DAVID BREMNER.—An American soldier and statesman, born in Scotland in 1840. His parents settled in Illinois in 1846 and removed to Iowa in 1849. He served in the Civil War from 1861 to 1863 when he was discharged on account of a severe wound. He was made colonel in 1864. In 1865 he was admitted to the bar; elected to Congress (1883) and several times re-elected. In 1899 he succeeded Thomas B. Reed as speaker and held the position until 1903 when he resigned on account of his inability to support the "Iowa idea" of tariff.

HENDRICKS, THOMAS ANDREW.—(1819-1885.) An American statesman, born in Zanesville, Ohio. He was admitted to the bar of Indiana in 1843; was member of Congress (1851-55), and was appointed commissioner of the land office by President Pierce. He was elected to the United States Senate in 1863, where he became a prominent Democratic leader. He was governor of Indiana in 1872, and resumed his law practice in Indianapolis until 1884 when he was elected Vice-president with Grover Cleveland. He died in office in his first year.

HEPBURN *vs.* GRISWOLD.—One of the Supreme Court cases involving the constitutionality of the issue of U. S. legal-tender notes. June 20, 1860, Mrs. Hepburn promised to pay Mr. Griswold \$11,250 on Feb. 20, 1862. At that time gold and silver only were legal tender. Feb. 25, 1862, the U. S. issued \$150,000,000 of its own notes to be received as lawful money in payment of all debts, public and private, within the U. S. This was five days after the note became due. Mrs. Hepburn, in Mar., 1864, after suit had been brought, tendered these notes in payment and they were refused. The notes were then tendered and paid into court, in Louisville, Ky. The Louisville court of chancery declared the debt absolved. The Ky. court of errors and appeals reversed the chancellor's judgment, and the U. S. Supreme Court, at the Dec. term, 1867, affirmed the judgment of the court of errors and appeals. This ruling was afterward reversed. (See JULLIARD *vs.* GREENMAN.)

HERMITAGE THE.—The name given by Andrew Jackson to his home, situated about 10 miles from Nashville, Tenn., near the Cumberland River. Here President Jackson died and was buried. The place has become the property of the state of Tenn., and has been



converted into a state home for aged, indigent, or disabled ex-Confederate soldiers. (See JACKSON, ANDREW.)

HEWITT, ABRAM STEVENS.—An American statesman, born in Haverstraw, New York, in 1822. He was admitted to the bar, but he associated with Peter Cooper in iron manufacturing. He was commissioner to the Paris Exhibition (1867); elected to Congress as a Democrat (1874) and, with the exception of one term, served until 1886, in which year he was elected mayor of New York City. He has always been an authority on the manufacture of steel and iron. He married Peter Cooper's daughter in 1867.

HIGH LICENSE.—A term generally used to denote a high tax on a seller of intoxicating liquors. The objects of high license are to increase the price of liquor to some extent so as to limit its consumption and place its sale on a more respectable basis, and to collect by a tax on the traffic a large revenue for public purposes. Several states have passed high license laws and some communities have in addition placed local restrictions on the traffic in intoxicants.

HIGH SEAS.—“High seas” means the open sea, including the whole extent of sea so far as it is not the exclusive property of any particular country. The rule of international law is that every country bordering on the sea has the exclusive sovereignty over such sea to the extent of three miles from its shores; but all beyond, not within three miles of some other country, is open or common to all countries. The part of sea within three miles' distance is generally called the territorial sea of the particular country. The Non-Importation act was passed by Congress on March 26, 1806, to prohibit the importation of British manufactures into the United States. The immediate cause of this prohibition was the annoyance caused by the “Leander” cruising off New York, and insisting on searching American vessels under pretense of looking for deserters. In one of these searches, an American sailor, named Pearce, was killed, and the hostility of the states, which had long been smoldering, burst into a blaze.

HILL, DAVID BENNET.—A prominent Democratic American politician, was born in Havana, N. Y., in 1843. He was admitted to the bar in 1864. He presided at the Democratic conventions in 1877 and 1881. He was mayor of Elmira, N. Y. (1882); lieutenant-governor of New York (1882–85); governor of New York (1885–91); United States senator (1891–97). In 1892 he was a prominent candidate for the Democratic presidential nomination.

HITCHCOCK, ETHAN ALLEN.—Secretary of the interior, under appointment dated December 21, 1898, was born in Mobile, Ala. He is

a great-grandson of Ethan Allen. He has been largely engaged in mercantile enterprises all his life. He was envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to Russia (1897-99). During the latter part of his term he was appointed ambassador, and was thus the first American ambassador to the Russian court.

HOAR, EBENEZER ROCKWOOD.—(1816-1895.) Son of Samuel Hoar. He was judge of the Mass. supreme court (1859-69); U. S. attorney-general (1869-70); joint-high commissioner on the treaty of Washington (1871), and member of Congress from Mass. (1873-75).

HOAR, GEORGE FRISBIE.—An American statesman, born in Concord, Mass., in 1826. He graduated from Harvard and was admitted to the bar in 1849. He was elected a Republican member of Congress in 1869; United States senator in 1877 and re-elected 1883, 1889, 1895, and 1901. He has strongly opposed the Philippine policy of the government and also the recognition and canal treaty with the republic of Panama (1904).

HOBART, GARRETT AUGUSTUS.—(1844-1899.) An American statesman, born in Long Branch, New Jersey. He began the practice of law in Paterson, New Jersey, and served several times in the state legislature and senate, where he became a leader. In 1896 he was elected Vice-president with McKinley and died in office.

HOBSON, RICHMOND PEARSON.—Born at Greensboro, Ala., 1870. A naval officer distinguished for his bravery in the Cuban War.

HOE, RICHARD MARCH.—(1812-1886.) An American inventor, noted for his inventions in connection with the printing-press.

HOLMES, OLIVER WENDELL.—Associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, under commission dated Aug. 2, 1899. He was born in Boston, Mass., in 1841. He graduated from Harvard in 1861. He served in the 20th Massachusetts Infantry and was shot through the breast at Ball's Bluff. In Antietam he was shot through the neck; and at Fredericksburg he was wounded in the heel. He retired with the rank of brevet colonel. He had published several books including "The Common Law." He was a member of the firm of Shattuck, Holmes and Munroe. In 1882 he was professor of law at Harvard. He received the degree of LL.D. from both Yale and Harvard.

HOMESTEAD LAW.—A law enacted by Congress May 20, 1862. It provided that any citizen might, on payment of the nominal fee of \$5 or \$10, enter upon and hold any unappropriated quarter-section of the public lands, valued at \$1.25 per acre, or any one-eighth section valued at \$2.50 per acre, and after five years' residence thereon, become the sole owner. This measure proved of great value in the settlement of lands of the west. Tens of thousands of persons in this way



secured homes for their families, and by their industry and thrift, began the development of the boundless agricultural and mineral resources of the great west, and started it upon its marvelous era of prosperity.

HUNTER, ROBERT MERCER TALIAFERRO.—Born 1809; died, 1887; noted as a statesman. He became a Democratic member of Congress from Va. in 1837 and 1845, U. S. senator in 1847, Confederate secretary of state in 1861, Confederate senator and peace commissioner in 1865. He was appointed treasurer of Va. in 1877, and retired from public life in 1880. He took a leading part in framing the tariff act of 1857.

IMMIGRATION.—No official statistics of immigration were kept previous to 1820. By act of Congress, Mar. 2, 1819, collectors of customs were required to keep a record and make returns to the Treasury Department of all passengers arriving in their respective districts from foreign ports. As early as 1700, large numbers of Germans immigrated to America, most of them settling in Pa. Some 5,000 arrived in that colony in 1729. Various estimates have been made of the number of immigrants coming to the U. S. prior to 1820. These ranged from an average of 4,000 to 7,800 a year. Dr. Loring, of the U. S. statistical bureau, calculates that 250,000 immigrants came to the U. S. between 1775 and 1820. In 1820, the first year of record, there were 8,385 arrivals. The following years showed a steady increase up to 1854, when the number reached 427,833. The total immigration from Jan. 1, 1820, to the close of 1893 was more than 20,000,000. This large influx of foreigners so disturbed the existing social conditions that remedial legislation was demanded. By an act of Congress passed in 1882, a head tax was laid upon every immigrant by sea, and commissioners were appointed to inspect the vessels entering American ports. They were given the power to prevent the landing of any "convict, lunatic, idiot, or other persons likely to become a public charge." Another law, passed in 1885, made it unlawful to pay the transportation or encourage in any way the immigration of aliens under contracts or agreements to perform labor or service in the U. S. The penalties attached to this act are \$1,000 fine upon the person so encouraging such immigrant and \$500 upon the captain of the vessel who knowingly transports the contract laborers. The immigration laws were amended 1887, 1888, 1891, and 1892. These laws have served to reduce the number as well as to improve the class of immigrants.

IMPEACHMENT.—The presentation of charges of maladministration against a civil officer before a competent tribunal. In the U. S.

the House of Representatives has the sole power of impeachment of the President, Vice-president, and all civil officers of the government. The Senate has the sole power as a high court to try such impeachments. The chief-justice presides at the trial of a President. A two-thirds vote is necessary to convict. Most states have similar regulations regarding the impeachment of state officials. This mode of trial of public officials comes to us from England, where impeachments are made by the House of Commons and tried by the House of Lords. In the history of our Federal Government there have been only seven cases of impeachment. Senator William Blount, of Tennessee, was impeached by the House in 1797, for treasonable negotiations with Great Britain for the transfer of New Orleans. The Senate acquitted him. Mar. 3, 1803, Judge John Pickering, of the Federal court of N. H., was impeached and removed from the bench for drunkenness and profanity. Mar. 13, 1804, Judge Samuel Chase, of Md., an associate justice of the U. S. Supreme Court, was impeached for arbitrary conduct and the introduction of political matter into his charges to grand juries, but on trial he was acquitted. Dec. 13, 1804, Judge James H. Peck, of the Federal court of Mo., was impeached for punishing as contempt of court a criticism of his opinions. He was acquitted. May 6, 1862, Judge West H. Humphreys, of the Federal district court of Tenn., was impeached and afterward removed, upon the charge of disloyalty and aiding the rebellion. The vote of the Senate was unanimous. Feb. 4, 1868, the House impeached Andrew Johnson, President of the U. S., for having removed Secretary of War Stanton in violation of the tenure-of-office act; for having appointed Gen. Lorenzo Thomas secretary of war, contrary to the same act; for conspiracy with Thomas and others for the intimidation of Stanton; for the unlawful disbursement of the War Department's moneys; and for inducing Gen. Emory to disobey orders. The House adopted the impeachment resolution by a vote of 126 to 42. President Johnson was acquitted by the Senate by a vote of 35 for conviction to 19 against, two-thirds being required. (See JOHNSON, ANDREW.) Mar. 2, 1876, Secretary of War W. W. Belknap was impeached on the charge of bribery, in the matter of making appointments. He resigned a few hours before the impeachment resolution passed, and the House and the President accepted his resignation. Aug. 1, 1876, he was acquitted by a vote of 36 for conviction to 25 for acquittal. The minority held that, as he was out of office he was not liable to impeachment. (See JOHNSON, ANDREW.)

INCOME TAX.—A form of direct tax upon annual incomes in excess of a specified sum. An income tax has been levied by the U. S.



Government but twice in its history. Aug. 5, 1861, as a war revenue measure, Congress authorized a tax of 3 per cent. on all incomes over \$800 per annum. July 1, 1862, an act was passed taxing all incomes under \$5,000, 5 per cent., with an exemption of \$600 and house rent actually paid. Incomes of more than \$5,000 and less than \$10,000 were taxed  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. additional, and incomes of more than \$10,000, 5 per cent. additional, with no exemptions. A tax of 5 per cent. on incomes of Americans living abroad and of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. on incomes from U. S. securities was also levied. In 1864 a special tax of 5 per cent. was imposed on all incomes between \$600 and \$5,000, and 10 per cent. on incomes of more than \$5,000. This law was repealed in 1872. The amount collected under it was \$346,911,760. In August, 1894, the Wilson tariff law imposed a tax of 2 per cent. on all incomes in excess of \$4,000. The Supreme Court in 1895 decided this to be unconstitutional.

"INDIANA," THE.—A second rate battleship of U. S. navy, that participated in the battle of Santiago, July 3, 1898. She was launched in 1893 and has a tonnage of 10,810 tons displacement. Her armor is eighteen inches of extreme thickness. She carries four 13-in.; eight 8-in.; four 6-in. Q. F.; and twenty 6-pdr. Q. F. guns. Her horsepower is 9,738 and her speed 15.6 knots.

INDIANS.—The aboriginal inhabitants of America. When Columbus sighted the coast of America he thought he had discovered the eastern shore of India. This was soon found to be an error, but the name "Indians" has continued to be applied to these prehistoric people of both North and South America. As they were mostly barbarous, and as those who were partly civilized possessed no written records, their origin and history became a problem for the ethnologist. Those of South America were divided by Morton into two classes: the Toltec nations, who were partly civilized, and the semi-barbarous tribes. The former included the Mexicans and the Peruvians, and the latter all the other peoples. Many ethnologists claim that the American Indians are a distinct type of the human race, as natural to this continent as its flora and fauna, and as having existed as such from the earliest ages of the world. Others regard them as a branch of the Mongolian race, which at a remote period of history wandered from Asia to America and there remained for thousands of years separated from the rest of mankind, passing through various stages of progress and retrogression. Anthropologists admit that between the various tribes from the Arctic Seas to Cape Horn there is greater uniformity of physical structure and personal characteristics than is seen in any other part of the globe. In manners, customs, and general features the difference between the Indians of the shores of the northern lakes

and those of the Gulf States is scarcely perceptible; it is only by languages or dialects that they can be classified or grouped. Though the red men of Canada differ in many respects from the wandering Guaranic of Paraguay and both differ from the Aztecs of Mexico, all exhibit strong evidence of belonging to the same great branch of the human family. Their physical characteristics are usually a low broad forehead; full face; head flattened at the back; powerful jaws; full lips; prominent cheek bones; dark, deeply-set eyes; long and wavy hair; no beard; copper-colored skin; erect and slender figures; about the average in height. In Mexico and Peru the Indians developed a great degree of civilization. They made laws, and considerable advances in the arts and sciences; lived in walled cities, which were governed by local councils; and, considering their spare opportunities, their system of government excelled anything of the period. Taking similarity of language as a basis of grouping, the Indians of North America were divided into sixty linguistic stocks. The most important were: Eskimauan, Athapascan, Algonquian, Siouan, Iroquoian, Salinan, Shoshonean, Muskhogean, Caddoan, Yuman, Piman, Sahaptian, Kiowan, and Timuquanan. East of the Mississippi, there were not more than eight distinct languages, four of which are still in existence. The number of Indians in the U. S. at the present time is about 300,000.

"INFANTA MARIA TERESA."—The flagship of Admiral Cervera in the Spanish-American War. She was sunk in the battle of Santiago in 1898, but was raised under the direction of Naval-constructor Hobson. While being towed to the U. S. she was abandoned in a strong gale off San Salvador and subsequently became stranded on Cat Island.

INGALLS, JOHN JAMES.—(1833-1900.) A distinguished American statesman. United States senator from Kansas from 1873-91, president *pro tem.* of the Senate the last three years of that period.

INNOCUOUS DESUETUDE.—This phrase occurs in a message of President Cleveland to Congress, Mar. 1, 1886, when he was discussing the subject of suspensions from office. The Senate had asked him his reasons for suspending certain officials. The phrase, which means "fallen into disuse," was taken up by the people and was not permitted, itself, to pass into "desuetude."

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.—There is no provision in the Constitution for internal improvements by the national government, and the matter has always been a subject of dispute. Since Aug. 7, 1789, Congress has regularly appropriated money for such improvements as lie strictly within the Federal jurisdiction—harbors, beacons, buoys, lighthouses, piers, etc. March 29, 1806, Congress authorized the Presi-



dent to appoint three commissioners to lay out a national road from Cumberland, on the Potomac, to the Ohio River, and appropriated \$30,000 for the cost. The road was to pass through several states. A national road was also projected through La. with New Orleans as the proposed western terminus. Several bills for national improvements were vetoed by Presidents Madison, Monroe, and Jackson. March 14, 1818, the House of Representatives passed a resolution declaring that Congress had the power to appropriate money for the construction of roads and canals, and for the improvement of water courses. March 3, 1823, the first appropriation for the improvement of rivers and harbors passed Congress. In April, 1824, \$30,000 was appropriated for the survey of such roads and canals as the President should deem of national importance, and the act of Mar. 3, 1825, authorized the subscription of \$300,000 to the stock of the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal. River and Harbor bills have been vetoed by Presidents Tyler, Polk, Pierce, Grant, Arthur, and Cleveland. Appropriations for the improvement of rivers and harbors have sometimes been attached to general appropriation bills. Appropriations for rivers and harbors have increased from \$2,000,000 in 1870 to nearly \$30,000,000 in 1896. Not all of the latter sum, however, was to be expended in one year.

INTERNAL REVENUE.—That part of the revenue of a country which is derived from duties or taxes on articles manufactured or grown at home; in fact all revenue not collected on imports. The internal revenue of the U. S. is derived chiefly from taxes on liquors and tobacco, and, in cases of emergency, upon commercial paper, bank circulation, and upon incomes. The receipts from these various sources have varied from \$1,000,000 in 1801, to \$309,000,000, which was reached during the operation of the war tax in 1866. Later the internal taxes settled down to a normal basis of something like \$150,000,000 a year. In 1892 \$154,000,000 was collected and in 1896 \$146,000,000. During the Spanish-American War, the amount was much increased by a stamp tax on a large number of articles and commercial instruments. Most of this tax was taken off in 1901.

INTERNATIONAL AMERICAN CONFERENCE.—Oct. 2, 1889, on the invitation of the U. S., an international conference of representatives of the U. S. and of 17 states of Central and South America, including Mexico and Haiti, assembled at Washington. The conference is known as the Pan-American Congress. The object was to adopt some plan of arbitration for the settlement of disputes, and also for the improvement of business relations and means of communication between the countries. Santo Domingo was the only state to refuse the invitation.

Before assembling as a congress, the delegates were taken on a tour of the country, to give them an idea of the extent, and resources of the U. S. After traveling 6,000 miles, they returned to Washington. The proceedings of the congress resulted in extending a knowledge of the commercial status of the various countries and the publication of an extensive series of debates and recommendations. The body adjourned Apr. 19, 1900. The Bureau of American Republics was established at the suggestion of this congress.

INTERNATIONAL LAW.—The system of rules which sovereign states acknowledge as regulating the intercourse between them and determining their rights and obligations.

INTERSTATE COMMERCE.—Commercial transactions and intercourse between residents in different states, as carried on by lines of transportation extending from one state into another or others. Power to regulate commerce between the states is vested in Congress by the Constitution. It is held that the power to regulate commerce of necessity included the power to regulate the means by which it is carried on, so that the scope of authority given to Congress by this clause enlarges with the development of the industries of the country and the means of communication. The intent of the framers of the Constitution was to prohibit legislation by any state against the business interests of another state, by taxation discrimination or otherwise. It was intended also as a check upon the arbitrary power of state legislatures, rather than upon private corporations, such as railroad companies. With the development of the great railway lines, traversing many states and bringing remote interior producers into close communication with the seaboard markets, came the necessity for regulating the rates of transportation by a more general law than it was within the power of the state to enact. It was charged against the railroads that they discriminated in favor of certain firms, or those in certain cities, and made contracts by which their goods were carried over long distances at lower rates than were demanded for carrying short distances like goods for other shippers. The railroads claimed that competition between trunk lines forced them to take the long distance freight at nearly the same rates as they received for local freight where there was no competition. It was asserted that the railroads did not regulate freight rates at the cost of carrying, but by what the business would bear. The first attempt in Congress to regulate interstate commerce was in 1873, previous to which time the Grangers had secured in some states the passage of laws for the regulation of railroad charges. These were in the western sections of the country. In 1878 John H. Reagan, of Texas, introduced a series



of bills in the House which culminated Feb. 4, 1887, after long debates on these and similar bills, in the act to regulate interstate commerce. This law established an interstate commerce commission of five to investigate complaints. It furthermore gives shippers the option of complaining to this commission or of instituting suits in the Federal courts, and prohibits unjust discrimination between persons and places, the giving of special rates, etc., though the commissioner may suspend this rule in special cases. It requires railroads to publish their rates and to adhere to them, and forbids "pooling" in freights by competing railroads.

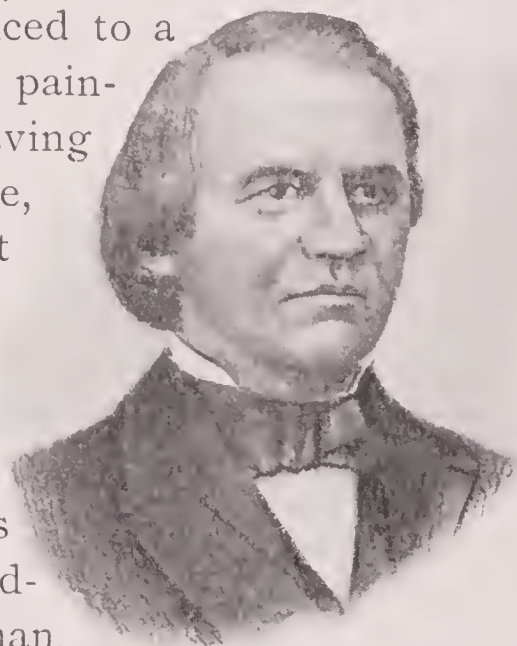
"IOWA," THE.—One of the U. S. battleships that destroyed the Spanish fleet at Santiago, July 3, 1898. Admiral Cervera, the Spanish commander, when his flagship, the "Maria Teresa," went down, was rescued from the water and taken on board the "Iowa," where he was received by her commanding officer, Captain Robley D. Evans. She was launched in 1896. Her tonnage is 11,340 tons, and her armoring 14 inches extreme thickness. She carries four 12-in.; eight 8-in.; six 4-in. Q. F.; and twenty 6-pdr. Q. F. guns. Her horse-power is 12,105 and her speed 17.1 knots. She is rated as a second-class battleship.

## ANDREW JOHNSON

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*A president who narrowly escaped impeachment.*

THE seventeenth President was the third who had been elected Vice-president, and became the Chief Executive by the death of the President. Andrew Johnson was born to poverty, in Raleigh, North Carolina, December 29, 1808. When he was four years old his father died, and his mother was too poor to afford him any facilities for education. At the age of ten he was apprenticed to a tailor, and during his working hours he slowly and painfully acquired the art of reading and writing. Having learned his trade, he removed to Laurens Court House, South Carolina, and two years later went to live at Greenville, in eastern Tennessee. Here he met and married Eliza McCardle. Under her tutelage he advanced in education, and throughout his life she was his greatest helper and adviser.



In Greenville he speedily became recognized as a leader of the laboring classes, as opposed to the land-holding aristocracy. In 1828 he became an alderman, and from that time he was almost continuously in one public position or another. In 1835 he was elected to the legislature of Tennessee, and in 1841 he entered the state senate. He went to Congress in 1843, became governor of Tennessee in 1853, and in 1857 was elected United States Senator. During his long legislative service, he was the constant friend of the working people, by whom he was held in the highest regard. On principle he was opposed to slavery, but he accepted it because it was an established system, and was sanctioned by the Constitution; but he advocated its restriction to the states in which it already existed, and always opposed its extension. Although a Southern man, he remained steadfast to the cause of the Union during the War of the Rebellion, and was bitter in his opposition to the secessionists. His effigy was burned at Memphis, Tennessee, and some of his former constituents put a price upon his head, so that he was obliged to flee from his home. When the United States forces entered Tennessee, President Lincoln appointed Johnson military governor of the state. He administered his office wisely and fearlessly.



The Republican national convention at Baltimore, in 1864, unanimously renominated Abraham Lincoln for President. Anxious to recognize the services and political sacrifices of the "War Democrats," the eyes of the delegates turned to Andrew Johnson of Tennessee for Vice-president. It was also deemed good policy to have a candidate on the ticket from the South, as it had been the favorite cry of the opponents of the Republican party that it was a sectional one. Mr. Johnson was nominated and was elected. The tragic death of Abraham Lincoln occurred April 15, 1865, and Mr. Johnson was immediately sworn in to fill the presidential chair.

The administration of President Johnson was, probably, more stormy than that of any other man who has occupied the White House. Johnson had always been a Democrat, and on many questions he was greatly at variance with the Republican party, which, under the stress of war, had, from considerations of policy, put him on the ticket with Lincoln. While the war continued, every other question was subordinated to the preservation of the Union. When Johnson came to the presidency, this question had been practically settled, for Lee had surrendered, the war was at its end, and the whole structure of the Confederacy had tumbled in ruin. The country was in a most critical state, owing to the confusion and turbulence incident to the war and to the assassination of Mr. Lincoln. The passions of men had not yet cooled, and it was easy to foresee that there was likely to be serious trouble over the "reconstruction" of the dismembered Union, by the restoration of the Federal authority over the states which had seceded four years before.

At the first, Mr. Johnson showed a spirit of great severity toward the late "rebels." It was supposed that during his brief term as Vice-president he had been silently in opposition to the humane and conciliatory policy foreshadowed by Mr. Lincoln, and, therefore, when he assumed the office of President, many feared that he would inaugurate a reign of terror by venting his bitterness on the Southern leaders. He advocated forbearance toward the mass of the people of the South, but demanded that rigorous punishment be meted out to those who had been leaders in the rebellion.

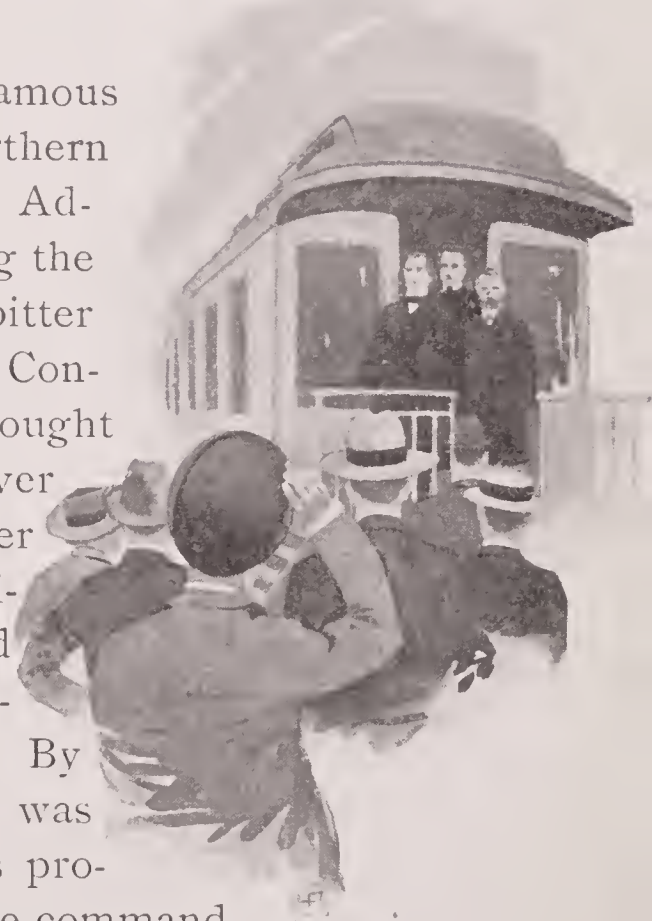
A series of unfortunate clashes with Congress plunged Johnson's administration into disorder and helplessness. At his inauguration, President Johnson outlined no definite plans, but he speedily developed a policy which he called, and always referred to as, "my policy," in contradistinction to that of Congress. The first distinct cleavage between the President and Congress became apparent when the question arose as to the relation of the states lately in rebellion, to the Union. Mr. Johnson maintained that the seceded states had not been out of the

Union, as their acts had been unconstitutional, and, consequently, their ordinances of secession were null and void. Congress maintained, on the other hand, that while the acts of secession were unconstitutional, yet, by those acts, the seceded states had been actually out of the Union, and could not be restored to their former status without legislation.

President Johnson issued a proclamation establishing provisional governments in the seceded states. The state governments were reorganized, but such stringent measures were passed against the negroes, now free, that the Republicans declared the conditions to be worse than those of slavery. Congress, which was now by a two-thirds majority hostile to the President, retaliated by passing the Freedman's Bureau Bill, a measure of protection for the negroes. The President vetoed the bill, on the ground that it had been passed by a Congress in which the lately seceded states had no representative. The Civil Rights Bill, for the further protection of the negroes, was also passed, but it was also vetoed by the President. It was passed over his veto by a two-thirds majority.

In August, 1866, President Johnson made his famous "swinging round the circle" tour through the northern states. He was accompanied by General Grant and Admiral Farragut, and made many speeches denouncing the action of Congress. From this time on, it was a bitter and persistent conflict between the President and Congress. Mr. Johnson vetoed nearly all the measures brought before him, and just as surely were they passed over his veto. In the Congress which met on December 3, 1866, an attempt was made to impeach the President, but it failed. However, in January it passed a bill depriving the President of the power to proclaim a general amnesty. This bill he disregarded. By a rider to the army appropriation bill, the President was deprived of the command of the army. It was provided that his orders should be given only through the commanding general, who was removable only by a vote of the Senate. At this stage, matters rapidly approached a climax. On March 2, 1867, the tenure of office bill was passed, and, after the veto of the President, the measure was repassed and became a law. It provided that members of the Cabinet should be removed only with the consent of the Senate. The President joined issue with the legislative body on the question, and out of this venomous controversy grew the impeachment proceedings against Mr. Johnson.

On August 5, 1867, Mr. Johnson requested Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, to resign his portfolio. Stanton refused, and the Presi-





dent suspended him and appointed General Grant secretary *ad interim*. Stanton then submitted under protest. When the Senate met, it refused to ratify the suspension of Stanton, thus replacing him in office. The President then, contrary to the tenure of office act, removed Stanton and appointed General Lorenzo Thomas in his stead. Stanton refused to vacate and arrested Thomas. On February 24, 1868, the House of Representatives voted to impeach President Johnson; on March 5, the Senate organized as a high court of impeachment and on March 23, the answers of the President to the articles of impeachment were read. Then followed the most remarkable trial in the history of the United States. Chief-Justice Salmon P. Chase, one of America's most distinguished statesmen and jurists, presided. The trial lasted until May 26. On May 16, a test division was taken, which resulted in a vote of thirty-five guilty against nineteen not guilty. As a two-thirds majority was necessary, the President was acquitted. So narrow was his escape from conviction, that the change of one vote would have made the result thirty-six to eighteen—exactly two-thirds—and impeachment would have carried.

Mr. Johnson's term of office expired March 4, 1869. He returned to Tennessee and for some years remained out of politics. But, in the course of time, he regained much of his former influence over the people of Tennessee, and in 1875 he was again elected to the United States Senate. He had served but a few weeks when he was stricken with paralysis and died, after a very brief illness, July 3, 1875.

JOHNSON, REVERDY.—(1796–1876.) An eminent lawyer and diplomatist. He became U. S. senator from Md. (1845–49 and 1863–68), attorney-general (1849–50), U. S. minister to Great Britain (1868–69), and negotiated a treaty with England for the settlement of the Alabama Claims, which, however, was rejected by the Senate.

JOHNSTON, JOHN TAYLOR.—(1829–1893.) Noted as a business man and a philanthropist. He became president of the Central Railroad of New Jersey from its origin till 1877, and sacrificed his fortune in order to sustain its credit. He was the first president of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, of which he was one of the organizers. He was connected with many other educational and benevolent institutions.

JUDICIARY.—The Federal judiciary system was modeled after that of Great Britain. At the beginning of the Revolution, the states abolished their higher courts and gave their functions to the common-law courts whose judges were usually appointed by the governors. The first steps toward a Federal judiciary were the commissions which decided land cases between the states. Commissioners

of appeal decided prize cases, and in 1781, under the Articles of Confederation, these were formed into a court. The Constitution of 1787 provided for a Supreme Court and such inferior courts as Congress might establish. Circuit and district courts were established by the judiciary act of 1789. In 1791, the circuit court of appeals was added to the system. The court of claims, the court of private land claims, and a system of territorial courts have also been established by Congress. The judiciary system of the several states is similar in a general way to that of the U. S. (See COURTS.)

JUILLIARD *vs.* GREENMAN.—A case resulting in an important decision by the Supreme Court in regard to legal tender. Juilliard contracted a sale of cotton to Greenman, who paid part of the bill in coin and offered the remainder in U. S. notes. Juilliard refused to accept the notes and demanded gold or silver. The case came before the circuit court of the southern district of N. Y., which decided in favor of Greenman, on the ground that notes issued by the U. S. are legal tender for payment of any debt. It was appealed to the Supreme Court, which Mar. 3, 1884, affirmed this judgment, and thus established the constitutionality of the legal-tender act of Mar. 31, 1862.

JURY.—A certain number of men selected according to law and sworn to inquire into and determine facts concerning a cause or an accusation submitted to them, and to declare the truth according to the evidence adduced. The custom of trying accused persons before a jury, as practised in this country and England, is the natural outgrowth of rudimentary forms of trial in vogue among our Anglo-Saxon ancestors. The ancient Romans also had a form of trial before a presiding judge and a body of *judices*. The right of trial by jury is guaranteed by the U. S. Constitution in all criminal cases, and in civil cases where the amount in dispute exceeds \$20. A petit or trial jury consists of 12 men, selected by lot from among the citizens residing within the jurisdiction of the court. Their duty is to determine questions of fact in accordance with the weight of testimony presented and report their finding to the presiding judge. An impartial jury is assured by drawing by lot and then giving the accused, in a criminal case, the right to dismiss a certain number without reason and certain others for good cause. Each of the jurymen must meet certain legal requirements as to capacity in general and fitness for the particular case upon which he is to sit, and must take an oath to decide without prejudice and according to the testimony. A coroner's jury or jury of inquest is usually composed of from 6 to 15 persons, summoned to inquire into the cause of sudden or unexplained deaths. (See GRAND JURY.)



KELLEY, WILLIAM DARRAH.—Born at Phila., 1814; died at Washington, D. C., 1890. An economist and politician. He was admitted to the bar in 1841; was Republican member of Congress from Pa. from 1861 until his death; was an ardent advocate of a protective tariff; he was for many years chairman of the committee on ways and means, in which capacity he had much to do with the preparation of tariff bills.

KELLY, JOHN.—Born at New York, 1821; died there, 1886. He was a member of Congress and the leader of the political Tammany Society of New York City.

KILBOURN *vs.* THOMPSON.—A case decided by the Supreme Court in 1880, denying the right of the Senate and House of Representatives to punish anyone except their own members for contempt of their orders. Kilbourn was summoned as a witness before the House in 1876, and ordered to answer questions concerning his private business and to produce certain private papers. He refused, whereupon Sergeant-at-arms Thompson was ordered to imprison him in the jail of the District of Columbia. After remaining in prison 45 days, he was released on a writ of habeas corpus, when he brought suit for false imprisonment against Thompson and the members of the committee who caused his arrest. The court decided that the House might punish its own members for disorderly conduct, but that the Constitution did not give either branch of Congress general authority to punish for contempt. It was held that neither house of Congress is a part of any court of general jurisdiction. Judgment was given for Kilbourn for damages, which was paid by an appropriation of Congress.

KIRKWOOD, SAMUEL JORDAN.—(1813–1894.) An American statesman, born in Maryland. He settled in Ohio in 1835 and was admitted to the bar in 1843. In 1855 he went to Iowa and was elected to the state senate. He was Republican governor in 1859 and 1861, and was United States senator in 1866. He was elected governor of Iowa for a third time in 1875, and was re-elected to the Senate in 1876. In 1881 he was appointed secretary of the interior by Garfield.

KNOX, PHILANDER CHASE.—Attorney-general under appointment dated Dec. 16, 1901. He was born in Brownsville, Pa., in 1853. He entered upon the practice of law in 1875, and was for several years the head of the law firm of Knox and Reed of Pittsburg, Pa. President McKinley appointed him attorney-general in 1901, to succeed John W. Griggs, of New Jersey.

KU-KLUX KLAN.—A secret organization that was formed in several of the Southern States soon after the Civil War. Its exact origin was never disclosed. It was charged against the order that its object

was to suppress the negro as a factor in politics, etc., by means of intimidation and terrorization. It was claimed that a copy of the Klan constitution was obtained, from which it was learned that their lodges were called "dens," the masters, "Cyclops," and their members "ghouls." A county was called a "province" and was governed by a "grand giant" and four "goblins." A congressional district was a "dominion," governed by a "grand Titan" and six "furies." A state was a "realm," governed by a "grand dragon" and eight "hydras." The whole country was an "empire," governed by a "grand wizard" and ten "*genii*." They appeared only at night and carried banners. Their dress was a covering for the head descending over the body, holes being cut for eyes and mouth. The covering was decorated in any startling or fantastic manner. The organization outran its original plan. In many localities gross disorders and crimes were committed by persons in disguise, who were either members of the Klan or were using the disguise and methods of the order for evil purposes. A congressional investigation followed, and President Grant, in a message, asked for legislation to suppress the order. The Ku-Klux act was passed in 1871, and the same year the President issued a proclamation on the subject. Soon thereafter the Klan dispersed and ceased to exist.

KNIGHTS OF LABOR.—A secret order of working men, founded by Uriah S. Stevens, in Philadelphia, in 1869, and formally organized as a national body in 1871. Not until 1881 was the name of the order made public, and at that time nearly all the trades were represented. The knights are governed by a general executive board, presided over by a general master-workman, who has power to order strikes and boycotts. The object of the order is the amelioration of the condition of the working people and their protection from the aggressions of capital.

LAMAR, LUCIUS QUINTUS CINCINNATUS.—(1825–1893.) An American jurist and politician. Appointed associate justice of the Supreme Court in 1888.

LANDS, PUBLIC.—In 1787 public land was held at  $66\frac{2}{3}$  cents per acre and large tracts northwest of the Ohio were disposed of at that figure. Up to the year 1800, 1,500,000 acres had been sold, all within the present state of Ohio. A plan suggested by Alexander Hamilton in 1790 was then adopted, by which public land was laid out in townships 10 miles square, to be sold on credit. Many purchases were made, but collections were discouragingly slow. During the currency inflation in 1835, on account of the injurious effect of speculation in the public lands, President Jackson issued an order that nothing but gold and silver should be received in payment for



them. A general preëmption law was enacted in 1841, but repealed in 1891. In 1898 580,000,000 acres of public land remained unsold. Many grants of land have been made to states, railroad and canal companies, and individuals. Settlement upon public lands was stimulated by the homestead law of 1862, which fixed a uniform rate of \$1.25 per acre to actual settlers upon quarter sections.

LANE, JOSEPH.—(1801-1881.) An American statesman and soldier, born in Buncombe County, North Carolina. He removed to Indiana in 1816; was elected to the state legislature (1822-46); enlisted in the Mexican War, and rose to the rank of major-general. He was governor of Oregon (1848); delegate to Congress (1851-57); United States senator (1859-61). He was nominated for the vice-presidency by the Democrats with Breckenridge.

LAWTON, HENRY W.—(1843-99.) An American soldier, born in Toledo, Ohio. He entered the Union Army in 1861. He was made brevet-colonel of volunteers (1865); second-lieutenant (1866); major (1888); lieutenant-colonel (1889); and in 1898 was made colonel on account of the prominent part he had taken in El Caney in Cuba. He went to the Philippines in 1898, captured Santa Cruz (1899). He was fatally wounded while making an attack on the Filipinos.

LEGISLATURE.—The body of men in a state or kingdom invested with the power to make and repeal laws. Colonial legislatures were generally modeled after the British Parliament, the King, House of Lords, and House of Commons, having their counterparts in the governor, the council appointed by him, and the representatives of the people. The first representative legislature in America met at Jamestown, Va., in 1619, when the representatives were elected by a property qualification. In 1776 Va. substituted a senate for its upper council and other states followed.

LESE-MAJESTY.—A term used in law signifying high treason or any crime committed against the person and sovereign power of a state. Our English word lesion—a hurt, wound, or injury—comes from the same Latin source, *lese* or *leze*. Lese-majesty denotes therefore a hurt or wrong done the king, or an act of rebellion, usurpation, or defiance directed against sovereignty. In Roman law the term signified an offense against the majesty of the Roman people. In Germany, under the present imperial régime, prosecutions have been frequent for this offense. Contriving, counseling, or consenting to the king's death in England constitutes the crime of lese-majesty.

LIBERAL REPUBLICAN PARTY.—A defection from the regular Republican organization in 1870-72. The party was opposed to the

strict measures of coercion adopted by the administration to maintain the newly granted rights of the freedmen, reconstruct the Southern States, and stamp out disorder in the South. Uniting with the Democrats in Mo. in 1870-71 it advocated universal suffrage, universal amnesty, a reform of the tariff, and a "cessation of unconstitutional laws to cure Ku-Klux disorders." At a national convention held in Cincinnati in May, 1872, the Liberal Republicans nominated Horace Greeley for President and B. Gratz Brown, of Mo., for Vice-president, in opposition to Grant, who was the candidate of the "straight" Republicans for a second term. Greeley and Brown were indorsed by the Democrats, but many members of that party were thereby alienated and they nominated Charles O'Connor, of N. Y., for President. Grant was re-elected by an overwhelming majority.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS.—When the seat of government was removed to Washington, in 1800, the idea of a Congressional Library was conceived. During the following year John Randolph made a report which formed the basis of an act of Congress of 1802, organizing the library. About 3,000 books of reference had been accumulated when, in Aug., 1814, the British army burned the capital and the library was consumed. In 1815 Congress purchased the private library of Thomas Jefferson, consisting of 6,700 volumes for \$23,950. An annual appropriation was made for the purchase of books, and the library continued to grow until in 1851 it numbered 55,000 volumes. Dec. 24, of that year a second conflagration destroyed 35,000 of these volumes. An appropriation of \$72,000 was made for repairs and the library grew apace. In 1866 40,000 volumes were transferred from the Smithsonian Institution. The following year Congress purchased for \$100,000 the historical collection of Peter Force, rich in Americana. This library contained nearly 60,000 books, pamphlets, and manuscripts. In 1864 President Lincoln appointed Ainsworth R. Spofford to be librarian, and he was succeeded in 1897 by John Russell Young, who died in 1899, and Herbert Putnam was appointed his successor. The library now contains 840,000 volumes, besides a very large collection of pamphlets, maps, engravings, etc. The present library building was begun in 1886 and completed in 1895, at a cost of \$6,360,000. It is the most beautiful building in the U. S., and ranks high among the fine structures of the world. It occupies an entire square, near the Capitol, and east by south therefrom.

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL.—In the U. S. Army, the rank next below that of general, and next above that of maj.-gen. It was first authorized in 1799 and was conferred on George Washington. It lapsed at his death, and was not revived until 1858, when Winfield Scott was brevetted lieut.-gen. At his death it again lapsed. In 1864 it was



revived by special act of Congress and conferred upon Ulysses S. Grant, on whose promotion to the grade of general, created in his behalf in 1866, William T. Sherman became lieut.-gen., and on his succession to the rank of general, Philip H. Sheridan was promoted to be lieut.-gen. At his death in 1888 the office became extinct, but was revived in 1895 for John M. Schofield, and later for Nelson A. Miles.

LIFE-SAVING SERVICE.—Life-saving stations are established on all the sea and lake coasts of the U. S. This branch of the public service, as now maintained, was organized by Sumner I. Kimball in 1871 and is attached to the Treasury Department. The coast line of the U. S., which is 10,000 miles in extent, is laid off into districts, each of which is governed by a local superintendent. The stations are located at points liable to wrecks, at an average distance of five miles apart, and are fitted with every appliance for saving life. Each station has a keeper and seven or eight professional surfmen. The value of this service is inestimable, and for its size no other corps in the world can equal its record.

LOCAL OPTION.—The principle of law, established in some of the states of the Union, by which the question whether or not licenses to sell intoxicating liquors shall be granted, is submitted to a vote of the people of a town or other minor political community. If the people of any locality decide for prohibition, it becomes part of the state law for that community.

LODGE, HENRY CABOT.—An American statesman, born in Boston, Mass., in 1850. He graduated from Harvard (1871); studied law; was lecturer in American history at Harvard (1876-79); edited the "North American Review" (1873-76); edited "International Review" (1879-81). He was elected to Congress (1886); to the United States Senate (1893-99). He has also written many books: "Life of Alexander Hamilton," "Studies in History," "Hero Tales from American History," "Life and Letters of George Cabot," "Life of Daniel Webster," "Short Stories of English Colonies in America," and "Life of Washington."

LOG-ROLLING.—A name used to characterize political working and scheming for the success of a party or a candidate; it is analogous to "wire-pulling."

LONE STAR STATE—TEXAS.—Texas is designated the Lone Star State from the device (a single star) on its coat of arms and state seal and banner. The lone star flag was made at Harrisburg, Pa., and presented in 1835 to the company of Capt. Andrew Robinson when the

movement was initiated to free what now forms the state of Texas from Mexican control and secure it an independence, prior to incorporation in the Union.

LONG, JOHN DAVIS.—Born at Buckfield, Me., 1838. A statesman. He was a member of the Mass. House of Representatives (1875-78), and three times speaker of the House; was lieutenant-governor (1879); governor (1880-82); member of Congress (1883-89); appointed secretary of the navy, (1897).

LONG NINE.—A famous body of nine men who at one time represented Sangamon County, Ill., in the state legislature. Abraham Lincoln was one of the number, not one of whom was less than six feet in height. The delegation contained several men of marked ability, and became celebrated as the "Long Nine."

LOW, SETH.—Born at Brooklyn, N. Y., 1850. An educator of note. He was elected mayor of Brooklyn in 1881, and again in 1883; became president of Columbia College, New York, in 1890. Elected mayor of New York, 1901.

MCCLOSKEY, JOHN.—Born at Brooklyn, N. Y., 1810; died at New York, 1885. The first American cardinal. He was president of St. John's College, Fordham, N. Y., (1841-42); appointed bishop *in partibus* in 1844; bishop of Albany (1847-64); became archbishop of N. Y. in 1864; was created cardinal in 1875.

MCCULLOCH, HUGH.—Born at Kennebunk, Me., 1808; died, 1895. A politician. He was comptroller of the currency (1863-65) and secretary of the treasury (1865-69 and 1884-85). During his first term as secretary, he funded the national debt.

"MCCULLOCH," THE.—One of the vessels of Commodore Dewey's fleet at the battle of Manila, May 1, 1898. She is not of a sufficiently high class to be given a rating in the navy of the United States.

MCGLYNN, REV. EDWARD, D.D.—A popular, eminent Roman Catholic priest and orator of Irish parentage; born, 1837. An earnest advocate of Henry George's doctrines, which brought him into disfavor with ecclesiastical superiors; but he was reinstated in 1893.

McKENNA, JOSEPH.—Associate justice of the United States Supreme Court under commission dated Dec. 16, 1897. He was born in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1843. In 1855 he removed with his parents to California. He was admitted to the bar in 1865. He has filled several state offices, and was a representative to Congress during three terms. He was appointed attorney-general by President McKinley; and succeeded Mr. Justice Field on the supreme bench.



## WILLIAM MCKINLEY

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*Whose presidential term bridged two centuries.*

OF TWENTY elected Presidents, and four Vice-presidents who quickly succeeded to the presidency, eight, only, have become their own successors. Thus, by almost three to one—allowing for the three Presidents who died in their first term—the rule has been fixed that only exceptionally shall a President have the coveted second term.



It would be premature at this stage to enter upon an examination of the cause that made McKinley one of the galaxy of reëlected Presidents.

Reflecting that among those to whom the honor and satisfaction of a second term have been denied are John Adams and his son John Quincy Adams, Van Buren, Hayes, Arthur and Benjamin Harrison, it is not without reason that President McKinley, his kindred, and his personal and political friends, were proud of his renomination and reëlection. Not in the present century are we likely to have a President incapable of feeling a glow at finding himself in the eminent class of Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Jackson, Lincoln and Grant.

Analyzing the several causes that gave second terms to the seven predecessors of McKinley, we find them to have been, in varying degrees and upon various occasions, a unanimous opinion among public men and all the people, as in the two and only instances of Washington and Monroe; a large possession of popular confidence and affection; shining personal merit; a long and distinguished public record; great historic claims; successful and satisfactory administration; an absence of rivalry within the same party, or, in case of its existence, the ability to control it; and either the actual want of an opposition, or its weakness or mistakes.

It could hardly be claimed for President McKinley that he has the high seriousness of Washington, the philosophical genius of Jefferson, the scholarly aptitude of Madison, the ripened versatility of Monroe, the predominating egotism of Jackson, or the profound insight of Lincoln. With Grant there is no useful ground of comparison, since it was Grant, the illustrious soldier, that the people twice

elected. Yet, unless President McKinley had qualities of his own, and those of no inconsiderable sort, it would be impossible to account rationally for his second term. Public men do not come to even a first term in the presidency by chance or accident, nor without a great deal of popular recognition of their fitness in personal character, intellectual ability and political experience. Taylor and Grant have been the only military Presidents, pure and simple; they were both publicly known and proved as men of estimable private character, and Grant had shown real ability in perplexing affairs during the stormy presidency of Johnson. Jackson was but partly a military President, having been a great deal in politics, and, though his early days had been politically wild and violent, his private character and habits were without reproach.

Born in Ohio, January 29, 1843, the young McKinley had acquired a serviceable common school and academic education when, in his seventeenth year, he began what he hoped would be a full course at college. But his health became bad and, in less than a collegiate year, he was at home, disappointed, but intending to try again, as he was still young. While awaiting the time of return, he became a school-teacher, but the Civil War came on and he was accepted as a private in a company of infantry raised in his neighborhood for the Twenty-third Regiment, Ohio volunteers. Four years of wholesome military life left him without further concern about his health. He proved a good and useful soldier; well behaved, cheerful and willing, shirking nothing and seeking nothing; free of ambition for a professional army career, but attending zealously to his duty from the day that he entered the army. To such a man, promotion is sure to come, and it came unsought to him, and, so coming, it brought neither envy nor jealousy in its train. He passed through all the intermediate grades and reached that of captain, for which he was rather young, even in a regiment of volunteers. His alert, steady and attentive qualities led to his detail to the higher range of staff duty, and, in that capacity, he saw the end of the war, receiving the brevet of major before its close for gallant and meritorious conduct, as attested by the distinguished general to whose personal staff he was attached.

McKinley left the service as soon as the disbandment of the Confederate and Union armies would permit, took up the study of law, in the course of which he spent a year at the Albany law school, and,





in 1867, obtained his admission to the bar. After the manner of young lawyers, he at once began to interest himself in politics. He chose the small but flourishing town of Canton, in Stark County, Ohio, as the scene of his professional activity, and, in 1869, obtained the desirable office, for one of his age and calling, of prosecuting attorney for the county. His professional and political importance grew steadily, and, in 1876, he was nominated for and elected to Congress. He was then in his thirty-fourth year, and he went out of Congress at the age of forty-eight, after a continuous service of fourteen years. Protectionist sentiment was always strong in his part of Ohio, both among employers and employed, and it would have been hard to convince the people of that section that their progressive prosperity would have been possible under an opposite system. The hopeless task never fell to McKinley, for, with the party badge, he took the party creed, and creeds are objects of belief, not of question. McKinley's belief in protection has always been such as would delight the soul of Monsieur Meline, the eminent French economist and statesman, of whom it has been said that he would refuse to enter the gates of Paradise if he had reason to suspect the presence of a free trader within.

From his first appearance in Congress, McKinley gave himself especially to matters relating to protection, and, in 1881, he was gratified by a place on the committee of ways and means. This he owed to Speaker Keifer, of his own state, and seventeen years afterward he returned the compliment by appointing that veteran of the Civil War to the grade of major-general of volunteers during the brief war with Spain. Speaker Carlisle continued him as one of the Republican minority of the committee during the next three Congresses, and, in 1889, Speaker Reed made him chairman of the committee. This was an act of confidence, as well as justice, for the new President, Harrison, like his predecessor, Cleveland, had reminded Congress that the existing tariff duties were piling up money in the Treasury, beyond the power of the government wisely and honestly to spend, while the withdrawal of the money from the channels of trade was crippling enterprise. The President called for a large reduction of revenue and a general stiffening of protection, for Harrison, like McKinley, was no half-hearted follower of Henry Clay.

Chairman McKinley, for the time being, was now the most important man in the country. In his hands were popularly supposed to lie the making and marring of unnumbered and unlimited fortunes. Though it may not have been in his mind, his experiences in those days were part of an admirable training for the duties of the presidency. All, however, depended upon his keeping his head, and he kept it. He was placid and patient, receptive and sympathetic.

Nobody left him offended or discouraged; he committed himself to nobody and he largely increased his knowledge of the difficult subject he had in hand. The principles of his new tariff bill, as he finally settled them, were, the largest possible list of free raw materials for use in domestic manufacture and exported to a foreign country, revenue duties upon articles of luxury and such as did not severely or largely compete with domestic manufactures, prohibitory duties on such as did, and the admission of agriculture to the direct benefits of protection by substantial duties on farm produce, which came in large quantities from Canada, in addition to the tobacco leaf which came from many parts of the world.

As a protective tariff which did not increase prices to the consumer would be a delusion to the producer, McKinley confronted the inevitable increase with two propositions—the general prosperity which would make the enhanced cost unfelt by the greater number, and the domestic competition, which, by improved processes, methods and apparatus would constantly tend to lower cost. On the lines indicated, the McKinley tariff bill passed the House of Representatives, May 21, 1890, and McKinley was worn but happy. It emerged from the Senate four months later, and was not then the McKinley bill other than in name. Better information had enabled the Senate to improve it in some particulars, but the important changes were for the benefit of special interests, to which the Senate is particularly susceptible; the Senate, as a body, being composed of abler men than the rightly named lower house, and its members naturally in close touch with great financial and commercial interests. Substantially as the Senate had altered the bill, it passed into law; it created consternation abroad, and caused resentment at home by the severe rise in price of the necessities of life on the eve of a congressional election. The Republicans were reduced to the paltry number of eighty-eight in a House of three hundred and thirty-two members, and McKinley was defeated in his district—although this may be fairly attributed to the fact that it had been “gerrymandered” against him.

McKinley insisted that the tariff act would come out all right, and, a year later, he was elected Governor of Ohio by a majority of more than twenty thousand, on the issue of the McKinley tariff. In 1892 he was chairman of the national Republican convention at Minneapolis, and one hundred and eighty-two delegates, who would not vote for the renomination of President Harrison, cast complimentary votes for him. Harrison was defeated at





the election, and a year later McKinley was reëlected governor by a majority of eighty thousand votes. Harrison's defeat and McKinley's astounding success placed the latter far in the lead as the next Republican candidate for the presidency. His only serious rival was Thomas B. Reed, a man of more originality and intellect, but cynical and not a favorite with public men. The interests of McKinley were skillfully and powerfully supported against Reed, whose supposed exceptional ability caused many outside the political class to desire him in the White House. He was believed to be sound on the money question, an important matter in the East, while McKinley, who tried always to be simply a good Republican, had coquetted with the silver question, like other western Republicans, and had made some strong bimetallic speeches. Long before the date of the convention, McKinley's managers proclaimed him "the advance agent of prosperity," and started for him a popular cry of "Bill McKinley and the McKinley Bill."

McKinley's nomination on the first ballot was sure before the convention met, but there was a great contest over the platform. The nominee's managers, with an eye to sentiment in the far West, fought for a "straddle" on the silver question and a beating of the big drum for protection. The Eastern delegates, however, forced into the platform a declaration for the gold standard and the candidate took up the new parable gracefully, and as an orthodox addition to the Republican stock of principles. It was still the intention to keep the tariff question at the front, but the surprising nomination of Bryan by the Democratic convention, on practically an exclusive platform of "sixteen to one," upset all calculations, and, long before election day, the tariff was forgotten by all not directly interested in it. Beginning his happily phrased front-porch speeches to visiting delegations at Canton, on the tariff and prosperity, McKinley was gradually forced to put the gold standard in front and to talk about it like a veteran. Bryan's whirlwind campaign against the "cross of gold," upon which all who thought themselves ill used and deserving were to be crucified by "the money power"—a specter as old as the presidency of Washington and the financial measures of Hamilton—put money in the foremost place in politics, as in most of the rest of earthly concerns. On the money question, McKinley was enthusiastically and decisively elected—party lines being broken by the non-partisan issue—and, in the third year of his presidency, he signed a bill fixing the gold standard, as happily as though he had been anticipating the pleasure these many years.

McKinley was a little past his fifty-fourth year when he became President. From his youth up, he had been a good and exemplary

man, in every relation and station in life. Honest, sincere, truthful, sociable, companionable, desiring to live and to let live, he had troops of friends and not an enemy; abundance of praise and not a note of detraction. Never remarkable, he had ever been capable, from the time when, a frail lad, he had shouldered a Union musket, to those later years of his own tariff bill, the governorship, and the little speeches at Canton. He came as the ideal President of Bryce's "American Commonwealth," for we have it upon the authority of that eminent commentator that a genius in the White House would be a bull in a china shop. A bull in a china shop McKinley resolved not to be, the keynote of his administrative policy being to work with Congress and to make Congress work with him. Fourteen years in Congress left him in no mood to treat that great constitutional body with disrespect, and his personal feeling was that, taking one Congress with another, the legislative department was not unworthy of regard, and, for public national purposes, was the most reliable exponent of the average and therefore prevalent popular sentiment. Applying the live-and-let-live principle to his relations with Congress, he became the most powerful President since Lincoln.

McKinley began his first administration courageously. He instantly called Congress together, assumed that he and Congress had been elected on the issue of high protection, and called for a tariff at once protective and productive. It was a large order, but the committee on ways and means did its best. The Senate mangled the bill less than usual, partly under the restraining influence of the President; and the abounding prosperity of the country, after the mills had been opened instead of the mints, brought in much revenue, paid by those who could best afford it. The extraordinary growth of trusts had made some of the tariff duties instruments of oppression, but the same public spirit that throttled slavery and secession, and brought in civil service reform and the secret ballot, may be depended upon to strangle the trusts if they turn out to be the hydra-headed monsters they have been painted.

The Spanish war was not McKinley's war, but it was surely the war of Congress and the people, and McKinley had not the historic prestige of Grant to enable him to hold Congress in leash, as Grant did at the time of the "Virginius" episode. Unwillingly as he went into it, he gave his heart and soul to it, and, from first to last, was the most important figure in it, which is not to be said of any other war President. The war was well conducted, was uniformly and speedily successful, and was tempered by a generous feeling and conduct not characteristic of war, but always characteristic of McKinley. To his kindly nature it was given to speak such words in the South as gave to the term "United States" almost a new meaning.



It would not be within the intent of this article to seek to pass final judgment upon such unfinished and controversial questions as those relating to Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands. But so far as McKinley is concerned, he has not turned back upon the record of his whole life in trying to be right and to do right. Past his fifty-



eightth year when he entered upon his second term, it is impossible to conceive of him as departing from the sincere and upright course he has all his life pursued. Despite the independent influences of Bryan's reappearance, and a national prosperity that McKinley doubtless helped, but did not create, nothing can be more certain than that his renomination and reelection in 1900 were evidence of a popular conviction that, taken altogether, his first administration had been honorable and successful. Being still with us, and probably destined to affect our country and its interests for some years ahead, some account of him, as he now is (1901), may be appropriate.

The President is a well-built man, and kindly years have rounded his figure in shapely and impressive proportion. Alert in movement, he steps off with a brisk yet firm tread, and carries himself rather jauntily. His many years of public life have mellowed in him two qualities highly useful for his present situation — urbanity and dignity. He bears himself well, and never permits any of his company to suspect that he wishes himself alone or somewhere else. He may be tired, or anxious, or out of sorts, but no brusqueness or indifference of manner is permitted to betray it. He has that instinctive reserve by which a public man, who takes political life sincerely, is guarded from becoming common to the multitude, and from inviting a degree of familiarity and importunity that could end only unpleasantly for both sides.

Lifelong habits of temperance and industry have given the President a good constitution. He is a strong man, physically speaking; able for his work, and doing it in a steady, cheerful and interested way. Fretful at his task, he never is, nor does he spoil an interval of real recreation by carrying into it the image of his briefly interrupted affairs. He is methodically industrious, not given to flitting from one to another of his employments, and careful not to waste time and effort over trifles. One of his serviceable qualities is the power to turn from the matter in hand to another, calling for immediate action, to give his whole attention to it, and, having completed it, to return with tranquil mind to his interrupted affairs. Those in political and

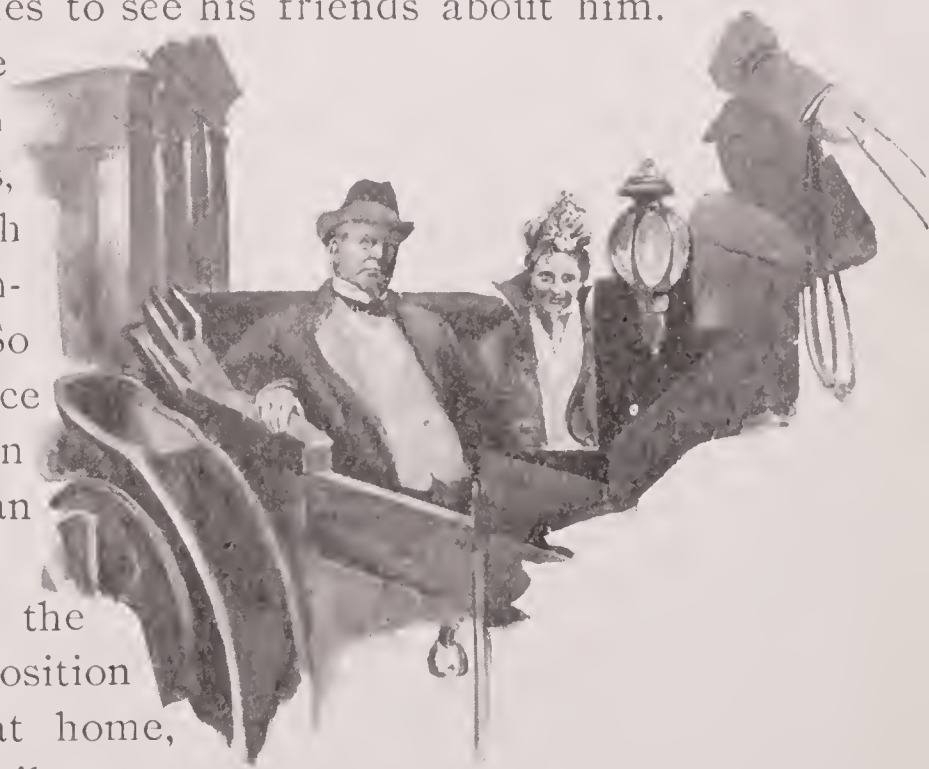
official life, talk much of the President's capacity for business and his thoroughness in passing upon it. The President works much, and works well, because he happens to be well fitted, by nature and habit, for working that way.

A man of sound physique, contented disposition and well-ordered life, President McKinley never found it necessary to adopt a fixed régime for the preservation of his health. An airing is the simple measure of his ordinary requirements. He is an easy-tempered man, of cheerful and sunny disposition, and hopeful and even optimistic temperament. With some of the features of Napoleon, he has a touch of the fatalism of that man of destiny.

McKinley makes of his Cabinet a real executive council. In this he has followed the earliest of examples—that of Washington; and here it may be interesting to note that one of President McKinley's habitual preparations for the duties of his place has been, and is, a careful study of the acts and utterances of his predecessors. Wisdom, he says, lies in accumulated knowledge; and what a former President well or happily may have done or said, in a situation akin to his own, he is glad to lay hold upon, as a valuable precedent in shaping his own speech or action. His is a talking as well as a working Cabinet, and to its discussions the President—with a quarter of a century of public life and service behind him; deeply read in political history; cool and deliberate in reflection; careful to have the facts fully and correctly before him; and with the lawyer's habit of arraying and balancing the opposite considerations—brings much beyond the mere supremacy of his rank and office.

McKinley is a sociable man and likes to see his friends about him. As an ingrained home-keeping man, he prefers to have his friends with him rather than to be himself a visitor. This, too, enables him to be all the more with Mrs. McKinley, a matter supremely important to the happiness of both. So the White House is usually a lively place during the customary social hours—in the best sense an example of American domestic and social life.

Fresh air and exercise are almost the only promoters of the President's disposition for outdoor life. He can be happy at home, even without guests or visitors. Like many another man of large and public affairs, he is fond of dipping into a good novel, or of reading through the latest book that holds the





popular interest, when opportunity serves. Poetry is also a favorite, as one might guess from his ready command of a wide range of apt quotations. He likes the pathetic and the martial, rather than the didactic or humorous type. But his true literary tastes focus upon political history, and in the political history of our own country he is almost a specialist. His literary ambition goes no farther than the desire to express in sufficiently clear and elevated language his necessary contributions to the national collection of state papers. In one way and another, President McKinley keeps abreast with the best thought and utterance of his time, in all that goes to the intellectual endowment of a cultivated, practical man. The simple habits and tastes of the President extend to his table. He is sparing in diet, and not fond of a profusion of dishes. A good cigar is an esteemed luxury, and as to that, he follows a self-imposed moderation.

In the important matter of appointments to office, the President is willing that men, active in politics, should recommend and urge other men of like activity, if the latter are of fit character and attainment, and give promise of being efficient and faithful public servants. The right, and even the duty, of senators and representatives to present claims of their constituents for public places, is recognized.

A characteristic of McKinley is that he continually grows up to the opportunities of his time and place. He never lacks a fitting word at the right moment, nor betrays hesitancy in dealing with a grave situation. Neither speaking nor acting in haste at any time, he speaks with readiness, and with epigrammatic force and directness, usually giving his auditors something to talk and think about at the moment, and making many a permanent contribution to the brevities of our political literature. He is equally felicitous in the many short messages of compliment or condolence that the custom of his office requires him to send to persons of prominence, abroad or at home, and which habitually come from his own pen. His messages to Congress, and his public addresses since his elevation to the presidency, rank him high among public men of the day. The power to say and do well the things that he has already well said and done as President, results from the union of blended force and moderation; of perfect sincerity, enlightened by good taste. Americans like what they term "a well-balanced man." The phrase is not an exalted one, but it sums up the respected and useful man of affairs, and it presents to us a fair portrait of McKinley.

MACVEAGH, WAYNE.—Born at Phoenixville, Pa., 1833. A lawyer and politician. He was admitted to the bar in 1856; was U. S. minister to Turkey (1870-71); was U. S. attorney-general under President Garfield in 1881; was ambassador to Italy (1893-97).

MAFFIA.—A Sicilian secret order which aims to substitute its own authority for that legally constituted by the state. It first became prominent in 1860. In 1874-75 the Italian government made some fruitless efforts to suppress it. It is supposed to be the outgrowth of a pontifical bull of the 15th century, which granted absolution to minor malefactors, for a money consideration. It depends upon a community of sentiment rather than organization for its strength, and its members are bound not to seek redress at law, nor to give evidence in court. The boycott and blackmail are the usual means of offense, but violence is often resorted to. Members of the society emigrating to the U. S. have established branches in New York, New Orleans, and elsewhere. On the night of Oct. 15, 1890, David C. Hennessy, chief of police of New Orleans, was assassinated before his own house by members of the Mafia to whose members he had traced a number of crimes. The officer received six wounds. Eleven Italians were arrested, charged with the murder. By the 15th of the following March, several of the prisoners had been acquitted and, despairing of convicting any of them on account of their disregard of oaths, a mob of enraged citizens headed by a lawyer named Parkerson, broke into the jail and put to death the 11 prisoners, including those who had been acquitted. In consequence of the delay in bringing to justice the perpetrators of this deed, the Italian government made a protest against this violation of the rights of Italian citizens, and the U. S. arranged the matter amicably by paying an indemnity to the families of the murdered Italians.

"MAINE," THE.—A second-class battleship of the U. S. navy. She was sent to Havana, Cuba, in Jan., 1898, on a peaceful mission, and was received by the Spanish forts and naval vessels in the harbor with the courtesies usually extended to visiting warships of a friendly power. Her anchorage was selected by the Spanish authorities. On the night of Feb. 15, 1898, the "Maine" was destroyed by a submarine mine and two officers and 258 sailors perished. (See SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR, in this volume; also SAMPSON, WILLIAM THOMAS.) A new battleship "Maine" was launched in 1901. She is a ship of the first-rate, and has a tonnage of 12,330 and armor of 11 inches of extreme thickness. She carries four 12-in., sixteen 6-in. Q. F.; and sixteen 6-pdr. Q. F. guns. Her horse-power is 16,000 and her speed 18 knots.



MANILA HARBOR (Philippine Islands), BATTLE OF.—Prior to the beginning of the war with Spain, the Asiatic squadron of the U. S. had been lying for several weeks at Hong Kong, under the command of Commodore (now Admiral) George Dewey. Upon the issuance of the colonial proclamation of neutrality, the usual 24 hours' notice having been given, Dewey repaired to Mirs Bay, near Hong Kong. From there he proceeded, under telegraphic orders from the President, to capture or destroy the Spanish fleet, then assembled at Manila. At daybreak, May 1, 1898, the American fleet entered Manila Bay and before noon effected the total destruction of the Spanish fleet, consisting of 10 warships, and a transport, besides capturing the naval station and forts at Cavite. The Spaniards lost 412 men, killed and wounded. Not a life was lost on the American ships and the wounded numbered only seven. (See SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR; also DEWEY, GEORGE.)

MANN, HORACE.—Born at Franklin, Mass., 1796; died at Yellow Springs, Ohio, 1859. An educator noted for his reforms in the Mass. school system. He was admitted to the bar in 1823; secretary of the Mass. board of education (1837-48); a Whig member of Congress from Mass. (1848-53); president of Antioch College, Yellow Springs (1852-59); and unsuccessful Free-soil candidate for governor of Mass. in 1852.

"MARIA TERESA," THE.—The flagship of Admiral Cervera, who commanded the Spanish fleet that endeavored to escape from the harbor of Santiago, July 3, 1898, and was entirely destroyed by the U. S. fleet. The "Teresa" was the first to emerge from the harbor but she was soon disabled by shot and shell and sank. A large part of her crew were killed or drowned. As many as possible were succored by boats from the U. S. ships. Admiral Cervera was rescued from the water and taken on board the battleship "Iowa." After the war the "Teresa" was raised and floated, and an attempt was made to tow her to a U. S. port. Under stress of weather it was deemed necessary to cut the towline and the "Teresa" drifted ashore on Cat Island, one of the West India group, and became a total wreck.

MARSHALL, HUMPHREY.—(1812-1872.) A politician and soldier. He was member of Congress from Ky. (1849-52 and 1855-59); U. S. commissioner to China (1852-53); and later a Confederate general and member of Congress.

MARTIAL LAW.—A system of government under the direction of military authority. It is an arbitrary kind of law, proceeding directly from the military power and having no immediate constitutional or legislative sanction. It is only justified by necessity, and supersedes all civil government. Suspension of the writ of habeas corpus is essentially a declaration of martial law. "In this case," says Black-

stone, "the nation parts with a portion of liberty to secure its permanent welfare, and suspected persons may then be arrested without cause assigned."

MATANZAS.—A port on the northern coast of Cuba, near Havana. The first encounter of the Spanish-American War took place here, Apr. 27, 1898, when a detachment of the blockading squadron shelled the harbor ports and demolished several works in process of construction.

"MASSACHUSETTS," THE.—A battleship of the U. S. navy, that participated in the battle of Santiago, July 3, 1898. She was launched in 1893 and is a second-rate battleship. Her tonnage is 10,810 tons, and armoring 18 inches extreme thickness. She carries four 13-in.; eight 8-in.; four 6-in. Q. F.; and twenty 6-pdr. Q.-F. guns. Her horse-power is 10,403 and speed 16.2 knots.

MAXIMILIAN.—(1832–1867.) An emperor of Mexico, and the younger brother of Francis Joseph I. He accepted the crown of Mexico in 1864. He was betrayed by Gen. Lopez—his most trusted friend—at Escobedo in 1867. The Mexican officer who took possession proffered an opportunity for escape which was, however, declined. Maximilian was tried by a court martial which proved a farce. He was shot on July 19, 1867, with Generals Miramon and Mejía.

MEND ONE'S FENCES.—John Sherman had a fine tract of land near Mansfield, his Ohio home. On one occasion he went from Washington to Ohio, on a mission that was chiefly political, and jocosely remarked to a friend that he had come to look after his fences. The phrase was immediately adopted into the political literature of the country, and was commonly applied to a congressman or senator who might visit his home to promote his chances for re-election.

MERCHANT MARINE.—The British navigation acts, beginning in 1645, prohibited importations with the Colonies, except in English or Colonial built ships. Though seriously restricting American commerce, these acts served to stimulate the shipbuilding industry in the U. S. Between 1789 and 1797 the registered tonnage increased 384 per cent. From 1837 to 1857, the tonnage increased from 810,000 to 2,268,000, and in 1861 the aggregate tonnage of American registered vessels reached the highest point in its history—5,539,813. This nearly equaled the combined tonnage of all other nations except Great Britain, which was slightly in excess of it. For various reasons American shipping has fallen off since the Civil War, until it became quite insignificant when compared with what it should be. Congress has given much attention to the building up of our merchant marine and a marked advance is apparent.



MERRITT, WESLEY.—Born in New York, 1836. A U. S. army officer. He was graduated from West Point and at the beginning of the Civil War was a captain in the 2d U. S. cav. He was made a brig.-gen. of vols. in 1862, and a maj.-gen. in 1864. He served with great distinction as a cavalry leader under Sheridan in 1864-65. In the regular army he was promoted to brig.-gen. in 1872, and to maj.-gen. in 1895. He served as superintendent at West Point, and, successively, as commander of the Depts. of Mo., Dak., and the East. He commanded the U. S. troops first sent to the Philippine Islands, in 1898, and in that capacity participated in the capture of Manila from the Spaniards.

MERRYMAN CASE.—Merryman, a citizen of Md., was arrested in his home in 1861, by order of an officer of the U. S. army and charged with treason. He was imprisoned in Fort McHenry. Chief-justice Taney granted a writ of habeas corpus, which the officer in charge of the prisoner refused to execute on the ground that the President had suspended the operation of the habeas corpus. The case was taken before the Supreme Court of the U. S., which decided that power to suspend the writ of habeas corpus was not vested in the President, Congress alone having such jurisdiction, and that a military officer had no right to arrest a person not subject to the rules and articles of war, except in aid of judicial authority. (See MILLIGAN CASE.)

MESSAGE, PRESIDENTIAL.—A written communication by the President to Congress. At the beginning of each session an annual message is transmitted in which the President reviews our standing and condition as a nation abroad and at home, and recommends such action by the House and Senate as may be deemed necessary for the welfare of the country and the correction of abuses. Special messages are sent from time to time to either or both Houses, submitting treaties or correspondence, or in answer to a request from either branch for particular information, or to recommend specific or immediate legislation. Veto messages are sent with the return of bills which the President disapproves, in which he states his reason for withholding his signature. After pointing out wherein a bill fails to meet the requirements of the case, he usually suggests the way to an effective measure that may receive executive sanction. Washington and John Adams personally read their annual messages to Congress. Jefferson inaugurated the custom, since followed by all of his successors, of sending messages in writing to Congress. They are carried by the private secretary of the President, who is received at the door of the Senate or House and whose presence is formally announced

by an officer of the body, whereupon there is an immediate suspension of whatever business may be in hand and he delivers the message. It is at once read by one of the clerks.

MILEAGE.—Compensation for traveling expenses at a certain rate per mile. The first Congress passed a law allowing each member \$6 for every 20 miles traveled in going to and from the place of meeting. In 1818 this was raised to \$8. In 1856 the allowance of mileage was limited to two sessions of each Congress. Railway transportation having greatly cheapened the cost of travel, Congress in 1866 reduced the mileage to 20 cents a mile. This is to cover railroad fare and the miscellaneous expenses incident to traveling.

MILES, NELSON APPLETON.—Lieut.-general commanding the U. S. army, was born at Westminster, Mass., Aug. 8, 1839. At the outbreak of the Civil War, he joined the 22d Mass. volunteers as lieutenant, and, with one exception, was in every battle of the Army of the Potomac, distinguishing himself especially at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Spottsylvania, Richmond, and Malvern Hill, and was thrice wounded. After the war he earned fame as an Indian fighter, particularly in engagements against hostile Sioux in Montana, the Nez Percés, Bannocks, and other troublesome tribes on the western frontiers. He represented the U. S. army while the Turco-Grecian war was in progress, and also at the late Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee. In the war with Spain, he led an expedition to Porto Rico, and effected a landing (July, 1898) at Guanico. On the retirement of General Schofield he succeeded to the command of the U. S. army, and in 1901 was raised to the rank of lieutenant-general. He has published a work on "Military Europe" and a volume of reminiscences, entitled "Personal Recollections." Early in 1903 he was retired.

MILITIA.—Citizens of a state enrolled as soldiers for training and discipline, but only called into active service on emergencies, as distinguished from the regular soldiers, who are in constant service. The Constitution empowers Congress "to provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions." In 1792 an act was passed to provide for the national defense by establishing a uniform militia system throughout the U. S., by the enrollment of every free, able-bodied white male citizen between the ages of 18 and 45. An act of Mar. 2, 1867, permitted the enrollment of negroes. The militia was called out by Federal authority in 1794, to quell the Whiskey Rebellion in western Pa., during the War of 1812, and during the Civil War.

MILITARY ACADEMY.—As early as 1776 the idea of a national military academy had been advanced. A committee of the Continental



Congress was appointed to prepare and bring in a plan of a military academy of the army. Washington called the attention of Congress to the matter in 1793, and in 1796 recommended the institution of such an academy. Mar. 16, 1802, Congress passed an act for its establishment. It is located at West Point, N. Y., on the Hudson River. The present high standard of the academy is due largely to the efforts of Maj. Sylvanus Thayer, of the Corps of Engineers, known as the "Father of the Academy."

The general commanding the army has, under the War Department, supervision of the academy. The immediate government consists of a superintendent, commandant of cadets, and seven commissioned professors. The corps of cadets consists of one from each Congressional district, one from each territory, one from the District of Columbia, and 12 from the U. S. at large. Candidates must be between 17 and 22 years of age, at least 5 feet in height, of sound health and good moral character, and possessed of a common school education. They take the oath of allegiance to the U. S. and serve eight years unless sooner discharged. Graduates are commissioned second lieutenants by the President. The U. S. has also the Engineer School at Willet's Point, N. Y., the Artillery School at Fort Monroe, Va., the Infantry and Cavalry School at Leavenworth, Kan., and the Light Artillery and Cavalry School at Fort Riley, Kan.

MILLER, SAMUEL FREEMAN.—Born at Richmond, Ky., 1816; died at Washington, D. C., 1890. A jurist. He practised medicine for a time but eventually became a lawyer, and removed in 1850 from Kentucky to Keokuk, Iowa. He was appointed associate of the U. S. Supreme Court by President Lincoln in 1862, was a member of the U. S. Electoral Commission of 1877. He was a Republican in politics.

MILLIGAN CASE.—A U. S. Supreme Court case, involving the authority of the President to suspend the rights of citizens under habeas corpus proceedings. Oct. 5, 1864, during the Civil War, Milligan, a citizen of Ind., was arrested by order of Gen. Hovey, and on Oct. 21, was brought before a military commission convened at Indianapolis. He was tried, found guilty, and sentenced to be hanged for participation in rebellious schemes. By the habeas corpus act of Congress in 1863, lists were to be furnished in each state of persons suspected of disloyal acts and counsels. But any such person arrested, against whom no indictment should be found by the circuit or district court, was to be set at liberty on his petition verified by oath. Milligan was not indicted by a civil court. He objected to the authority of the military commission, and sued for a writ of habeas corpus in the circuit court. The case was decided by the Supreme Court in

1866, Justice Davis reading the opinion that the writ should be issued and the prisoner discharged. The court held that the power of erecting military jurisdiction in a state not invaded, and not a rebellion, was not vested in Congress, and that it could not be exercised in this particular case; that the prisoner, a civilian, was exempt from the laws of war and could only be tried by a jury; that the writ of habeas corpus could not be constitutionally suspended, though the privilege of that writ might be. The chief-justice and Justices Wayne, Swayne, and Miller, while concurring in the judgment of the court, made a separate statement of reasons. The decision expressly stated that conspiracies to aid rebellion were enormous crimes, and that Congress was obliged to enact severe laws to meet such a crisis.

MILLS BILL.—A tariff bill, named from the chairman (R. Q. Mills) of the Ways and Means Committee, passed by the Democratic House in 1888, and rejected by the Republican Senate. It placed wool, hemp, flax, and lumber on the free list, and reduced duties on woolen goods, pig-iron, etc.

MILLS, ROGER QUARLES.—Born in Todd Co., Ky., 1832. A Democratic politician. He settled in Tex. in 1849, served as a Confederate officer in the Civil War, was a member of Congress from Tex. (1873-92), chairman of the Ways and Means Committee (1887-89), and as such introduced the Mills Bill in 1888. He represented Tex. in the U. S. Senate (1892-98).

MISSISSIPPI RIVER COMMISSION.—A board existing under the auspices of the U. S. Government, the duty of which is to devise and recommend from time to time such measures as may be necessary to maintain the safe navigability of the Mississippi River.

MODOC WAR.—A war between the U. S. Government and the Modoc Indians led by Captain Jack. In 1872 the Modocs refused to go to the Klamath reservation in southern Ore., and went to the Lava Beds. At a conference between Gen. Canby and the Indians, April, 1873, the former was treacherously killed. War ensued, the band surrendered, and Captain Jack was executed.

MOODY, WILLIAM HENRY.—Secretary of the navy under appointment dated May 1, 1902. He was born in Haverhill, Mass., in 1853. He graduated from Harvard in 1876, and entered the profession of law. He was a representative at four Congresses.

MOREY LETTER, THE.—A letter forged in the name of J. A. Garfield, favoring Chinese cheap labor. It was published at New York in Oct., 1880, shortly before the presidential election, and addressed to a fictitious H. L. Morey.



MORGAN, JOHN TYLER.—United States Democratic senator from Alabama, was born at Athens, Tenn., in 1824. He went to Alabama in 1833, and was admitted to the bar in 1845. He served in the Confederate army during the Civil War and rose to the rank of brigadier-general. He was presidential elector in 1860 and in 1876. President Harrison appointed him arbitrator of Bering Sea Fisheries in 1892; and President McKinley made him a commissioner to organize the government of Hawaii in 1898. His term of office as senator began in 1877 and expires 1907.

MORRILL, JUSTIN SMITH.—Born at Strafford, Vt., 1810; died at Washington, D. C., 1898. A Republican politician. He was a member of Congress from Vt. (1855-67), and occupied a seat in the U. S. Senate (1867-98). The so-called Morrill tariff was reported by him in the House in 1861.

MORRILL, LOT MYRICK.—Born at Belgrade, Me., 1813; died at Augusta, Me., 1883. A politician. He was governor of Me. (1858-60), senator from Me. (1861-76), and secretary of the treasury (1876-77).

MORTON, LEVI PARSONS.—Born at Shoreham, Vt., 1824. A banker and politician, minister to France (1881-85), Vice-president of the U. S. (1889-93), and governor of N. Y. (1895-97).

MORTON, OLIVER PERRY.—Born in Wayne Co., Ind., 1823; died at Indianapolis, Ind., 1877. A statesman. He was governor of Ind. (1861-67); U. S. senator (Republican) from Ind. (1866-77), and a member of the Electoral Commission (1877).

MUNN *vs.* ILLINOIS.—One of the "elevator cases" decided by the Supreme Court of the U. S. In 1872 Munn and another were found guilty of violating an article of the Ill. constitution in regard to grain warehouses. They had failed to take out a license and give bond, and were charging higher rates for storage than the law allowed. The offenders were fined and the supreme court of the state affirmed the action of the criminal court. That body affirmed the judgment on the ground that the act of the Ill. legislature was not repugnant to the Constitution of the U. S., and that a state could lawfully determine how a man might use his own property when the good of other citizens was involved.

"MY POLICY."—The administrative course of President Andrew Johnson (1865-68), which was hostile to the policy of the Republican Congress, and which led to the impeachment proceedings against him in 1868.

NATIONAL BOARD OF HEALTH.—Congress, by an act approved Mar. 3, 1879, established a National Board of Health, consisting of seven

civilian physicians, one army surgeon, one navy surgeon, one surgeon of the Marine Hospital service and one officer of the Department of Justice. This board was later abolished. A national quarantine law was passed June 3, 1879.

NATIONAL GUARD.—The enrolled militia of a number of the states, organized under an act of Congress, is known as the National Guard. In 1891 the enrollment included 92,203 infantry, 4,554 cavalry, 5,224 artillery, and 9,311 commissioned officers,—a total of 111,292. The National Guard of each state is at all times subject to a call from the governor to service only within the state.

NATIONALITY.—The nationality of persons in the U. S. is determined by Federal law, not by state enactment. As the loss or acquisition of citizenship is not provided for by the Constitution, it is governed by the common law. All persons born within the U. S. are endowed with nationality. By the naturalization act of 1790, children born of American parents in foreign lands are Americans, but the act of 1855 restricted this to children whose fathers were citizens. "All persons born in the U. S. and not subject to any foreign power," are, by the civil rights act of 1866 declared citizens of the U. S. The 14th amendment defines citizens as "all persons born or naturalized in the U. S. and subject to the jurisdiction thereof." (See NATURALIZATION.)

NATIONAL PARKS.—Tracts of territory exempted from sale and set aside by Congress for the use of the people, because of scenic beauty or historic associations. The principal districts thus reserved are the Yellowstone region and the Yosemite Valley. The latter, including the Mariposa Big Tree Grove, was made a national park by act of Congress in 1864, and granted to the state of Cal., on condition that it be forever set aside for public use. It is about 155 miles from San Francisco, is six miles long, and about a mile in width, and its perpendicular depth is about a mile, though it lies 4,000 feet above the level of the sea. Yellowstone Park, reserved in 1872, includes an area of about 4,480 sq. miles, lying in Id., Mont., and Wyo. Its general elevation is about 6,000 feet. Columns of basalt 1,000 feet high, acres of miniature volcanoes, giant geysers intermittently spurting columns of hot water and steam hundreds of feet into the air from basins of fantastic shapes and vivid colorings, the Gardner River plunging through a forbidding black hole into the Grand Canyon 2,000 feet below, and on every side mountains towering 10,000 to 12,000 feet, all combine to furnish scenery of unspeakable grandeur. Three tracts of land in Tulare Co., Cal., containing giant trees, were reserved in 1890 for a national park. The same year Congress set aside a park of



1,500 acres along the picturesque Rock Creek, in the District of Columbia, half the cost being paid by the people of Washington and half by the U. S. Adjoining it is the National Zoölogical Park. Congress has also reserved the battle grounds of Gettysburg, Chickamauga, Shiloh, Vicksburg, and others, as national military parks.

**NATURALIZATION LAWS OF THE U. S.**—The conditions under and the manner in which an alien may be admitted to become a citizen of the United States are prescribed by Section 2, 165-74, of the Revised Statutes of the United States.

*Declaration of Intentions.*—The alien must declare upon oath before a circuit or district court of the United States or a district or supreme court of the territories, or a court of record of any of the states having common law jurisdiction and a seal and clerk, two years at least prior to his admission, that it is, *bona fide*, his intention to become a citizen of the United States, and to renounce forever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince or state, and particularly to the one of which he may be at the time a citizen or subject.

*Oath on Application for Admission.*—He must at the time of his application to be admitted declare on oath, before some one of the courts above specified, "that he will support the Constitution of the United States and that he absolutely and entirely renounces and abjures all allegiance and fidelity to every foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty, and particularly, by name, to the prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty of which he was before a citizen or subject," which proceedings must be recorded by the clerk of the court.

*Conditions for Citizenship.*—If it shall appear to the satisfaction of the court to which the alien has applied that he has made a declaration to become a citizen two years before applying for final papers, and has resided continuously within the United States for at least five years, and within the state or territory where such court is at the time held one year at least; and that during that time "he has behaved as a man of good moral character, attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States, and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same," he will be admitted to citizenship. If the applicant has borne any hereditary title or order of nobility, he must make an express renunciation of the same at the time of his application.

*Soldiers.*—Any alien of the age of twenty-one years and upward who has been in the armies of the United States, and has been honorably discharged therefrom, may become a citizen on his petition, without any previous declaration of intention, provided that he has resided in the United States at least one year previous to his applica-

tion, and is of good moral character. (It is judiciously decided that residence of one year in a particular state is not requisite.)

*Minors.*—Any alien under the age of twenty-one years who has resided in the United States three years next preceding his arriving at that age, and who has continued to reside therein to the time he may make application to be admitted a citizen thereof, may, after he arrives at the age of twenty-one years, and after he has resided five years within the United States, including the three years of his minority, be admitted a citizen; but he must make a declaration on oath and prove to the satisfaction of the court that for two years next preceding it has been his *bona fide* intention to become a citizen.

*Children of Naturalized Citizens.*—The children of persons who have been duly naturalized, being under the age of twenty-one years at the time of the naturalization of their parents, shall, if dwelling in the United States, be considered as citizens thereof.

*Citizens' Children Who Are Born Abroad.*—The children of persons who now are or have been citizens of the United States are, though born out of the limits and jurisdiction of the United States, considered as citizens thereof.

*Chinese.*—The naturalization of Chinamen is expressly prohibited by Section 14, Chapter 126, Laws of 1882.

*Protection Abroad to Naturalized Citizens.*—Section 2,000 of the Revised Statutes of the United States declares that "all naturalized citizens of the United States while in foreign countries are entitled to and shall receive from this Government the same protection of persons and property which is accorded to native-born citizens."

*The Right of Suffrage.*—The right to vote comes from the state, and is a state gift. Naturalization is a Federal right and is a gift of the Union, not of any one state. In nearly one-half of the Union aliens (who have declared intentions) vote and have the right to vote equally with naturalized or native-born citizens. In the other half only actual citizens may vote. (See Table of Qualifications for Voting in each state, on another page.) The Federal naturalization laws apply to the whole Union alike, and provide that no alien may be naturalized until after five years' residence. Even after five years' residence and due naturalization, he is not entitled to vote unless the laws of the state confer the privilege upon him, and he may vote in several states six months after landing, if he has declared his intention, under United States law, to become a citizen.

*Inhabitants of the New Insular Possessions.*—The inhabitants of Hawaii were declared to be citizens of the U. S. under the act of



1900 creating Hawaii a territory. Under the U. S. Supreme Court decision in the insular cases, in May, 1901, the inhabitants of the Philippines and Porto Rico are entitled to full protection under the Constitution, but not to the privileges of U. S. citizenship until Congress so decrees, by admitting the countries as states or organizing them as territories.

NAVAL ACADEMY.—An institution for the training of naval officers, founded at Annapolis, Md., in 1845, through the efforts of George Bancroft, then secretary of the navy. It is under the immediate control of an academic board, consisting of a superintendent, who is a naval officer, a commandant of cadets, and the heads of the different departments of study, who are, with one exception, naval officers. One naval cadet is allowed for each member of the House of Representatives, and by presidential appointment, one from the District of Columbia and ten from the country at large. The requirements for admission to the academy are a robust constitution, freedom from physical defects, age between 15 and 20 years, and a knowledge of the ordinary English branches. If admitted, each cadet is obliged to sign an agreement to serve in the navy eight years and make a deposit of \$200 to cover the cost of outfit. They receive \$500 each per year, but are required to pay for their subsistence, clothing, etc. The first three years all the cadets pursue the same course of study, but in the fourth year the cadets destined for the "line" division pursue a course in seamanship, ordnance, gunnery, infantry, tactics, navigation, surveying, compass deviation, and international law; while those who expect to serve in the engineer division take a course of instruction in marine boilers and engines and in designing machinery.

NAVAL MILITIA.—In 1888 Congress passed an act authorizing the maritime states to organize a naval reserve, to be trained and fitted for operating the coast and harbor defense vessels, etc., in time of war thus liberating the regular naval force to man the heavy sea-going war vessels. Mass. was the first state to pass laws providing for such an organization. N. Y. took similar action, and in 1898 most of the seaboard states had regularly organized naval militia. The first appropriation for the equipment of the force was \$25,000, made by Congress in 1891.

NAVAL WAR COLLEGE.—An institution established by the Government at Coasters' Harbor Island, Newport, R. I., in 1889, giving a course of lectures on an instruction in the manipulation of torpedoes. The course is chiefly in the torpedo science, but lectures are delivered on all branches of naval improvement and progress. It continues three months of each year.

NAVY.—During the Revolution this country had practically no navy. At the end of 1775 the Continental Congress began the construction of a navy by ordering 13 frigates to be built. These performed some service but most of the achievements of the war were by privateers. By 1781 all of the 13 Federal vessels had been either captured or destroyed. In 1797 and 1798, in anticipation of war with France, Congress authorized the construction of the "Constitution," "United States," and "Constellation," and the purchase of 24 vessels. Hostilities with France were averted, however, and at the outbreak of the war with Great Britain in 1812, the U. S. had about a score of vessels, three of which were first-class frigates—the "Constitution," "President," and "United States." The brilliant careers of American vessels during that war secured increased naval appropriations. In 1816 \$1,000,000 annually for eight years was appropriated. By the law of 1819 the navy was largely increased and the vessels were divided among four squadrons and stationed in the Mediterranean, Pacific, West Indies, and off the coast of Brazil. In 1841 an additional squadron was ordered to cruise along the coast of the U. S. During the Mexican War the navy did effective service. At the outbreak of the Civil War in 1861 the U. S. had only 40 ships in commission. The character of warfare was at this time changed by improved armament. The old wooden vessels became useless when opposed by modern guns of long range and heavy caliber. The turreted ironclad was born of this emergency. A new navy had to be constructed in order to maintain the blockade of southern ports, and by Jan. 1, 1864, the national government had over 600 vessels, 75 of which were ironclads, with about 4,600 guns and 35,000 men. After the war the navy was reduced to a peace footing. Notwithstanding the appropriation of large sums of money, 1882 found the U. S. in possession of only 140 vessels, and more than 100 of these were incapable of sea service. Soon after this date a new policy regarding the navy was inaugurated and has since been pursued with credit and honor to the nation. In 1899 the navy consisted of 4 first-class battleships, 1 second-class battleship, 2 first-rate armored cruisers, 3 first-rate and 12 second-rate protected cruisers, 9 unprotected cruisers, 1 first-rate and 5 second-rate double turret monitors, 12 third-rate single turret monitors, 16 third-rate and 3 fourth-rate gunboats, 1 harbor defense ram, 1 dispatch boat, 1 dynamite cruiser, 16 torpedo boats, 39 tugs, 1 training ship, 6 receiving and 6 sailing ships. The navy has recently developed to a wonderful magnitude, in armament, displacement, speed, durability, and efficiency. The law requires that all warships be built within the limits of the United States and of United States material. Yet at the outbreak of the Spanish War, the Albany and New Orleans



(then the Abreu and the Amazonas) were bought in England from Brazil.

In July, 1902, the naval force consisted of 1 admiral, 21 rear-admirals, 72 captains, 115 commanders, 172 lieutenant-commanders, 304 lieutenants, and 356 junior grade lieutenants and ensigns. The enlisted numbered 28,500 men and 2,500 boys. The marine corps numbered 6,750 men, making a total enlisted force of 34,750.

On January 1, 1903, the first-rate battleships launched, building, and proposed were: "Illinois" (1898), "Alabama" (1898), "Wisconsin" (1898), "Maine" (1901), "Missouri" (1902), "Ohio" (1901), "Nebraska" (building), "New Jersey" (building), "Georgia" (building), "Virginia" (building), "Rhode Island" (building), "Louisiana" (proposed), "Connecticut" (proposed). The second-rate battleships were: "Oregon" (1893), "Massachusetts" (1893), "Indiana" (1893), "Iowa" (1896), "Kearsarge" (1898), "Kentucky" (1898). The fourth-rate battleship was the "Texas" (1892). The displacement of these varies from 6,315 tons in the case of the "Texas," to 18,000 tons in the case of the "Louisiana" and "Connecticut." The thickness of the armor is greatest in the "Oregon," "Massachusetts," and "Indiana,"—18 inches. The thickness of the armor is very notable in American battleships. The nominal horse-power and speed is the highest in those ships building and proposed, being 19,000 and 19 knots respectively. The new ships are not so heavily plated as the older ones, having 11 and 12 inches of thickness in the armor. Among the navies of the seven world-powers the United States ranks fifth.

The principal navy yards are at Brooklyn, N. Y., Boston, Mass., Norfolk, Va., Portsmouth, N. H., League Island, Pa., Mare Island, Cal., Pensacola, Fla., and Washington, D. C. Stations are maintained at Newport, R. I., New London, Conn., Port Royal, S. C., Key West, Fla., Bremerton, Wash.

NEGRO TROOPS.—In the early Revolutionary days, and in the last two years of the Civil War, on the Union side, negro troops were employed. In July, 1863, a general provision was made for their enlistment in the Union army, and some 200,000 were in the service. Since the Civil War there have always been negro troops in the regular army. They served in the war with Spain and the 24th infantry (after the death of its colonel), under Maj. Markley, bore the brunt of service in the fight at San Juan. Colored soldiers proved to be less subject to the prevailing fevers and the enervating effects of heat than were the white troops.

NELSON, SAMUEL.—(1792–1873.) A jurist. He was associate justice of the supreme court of the state of N. Y. (1831–37), chief-justice

(1837-45), associate justice of the U. S. Supreme Court (1845-72), and a member of the joint high commission to settle the Alabama Claims in 1871.

NEUTRALITY, PROCLAMATION OF.—Neutrality, in international law, is the attitude and condition of a nation or state which does not take part directly or indirectly in a war between other nations or states, but maintains relations of friendship with both or all the contending parties. In ancient times, war between any two nations was likely to involve another, either through sympathy or by its being drawn unwillingly into the controversy on the accusation of favoring one or the other of the belligerents. Modern civilization has made it possible for a peacefully inclined nation to avoid entanglements in quarrels not of its own making. The position which a state intends to take in case of war between its neighbors should be clearly defined. It is customary, therefore, on the breaking out of hostilities, for every nation not participating therein to declare its position with reference to the belligerents. This is usually done by a proclamation by the chief ruler of a nation, proclaiming its neutrality and calling upon its citizens to refrain from any acts of hostility or special favor toward either of the parties to the strife. It is also customary for every nation to put on the statute books general laws regulating the acts of its citizens with reference to foreign wars.

“NEW YORK,” THE.—The flagship of Admiral Sampson during the Spanish-American War. (See SAMPSON, WILLIAM THOMAS, 364.) She is a cruiser of the fourth-rate and was launched in 1891. She has a tonnage of 8,200 and armor of 10 inches extreme thickness. She carries six 8-in.; twelve 4-in. Q. F.; and eight 6-pdr. Q. F. guns. Her horse-power is 17,400 and her speed 21 knots.

NOMINATIONS.—In politics, an act of designation as a candidate for office, the ratification of which depends upon another person or body of persons. The President nominates to the Senate candidates for high Federal offices and makes the appointment only after approval. The head of an executive department nominates to the President those whom he desires as his subordinates in the higher official positions. A national, state, city, county, or town convention of a political party nominates its candidates for office in anticipation of election.

OATH.—In general, an oath is a solemn appeal to the Supreme Being in attestation of the truth of some statement or the binding character of some covenant or promise. In law, an oath is a solemn declaration requisite to entering upon the duties of some office more or less public, or to giving evidence in a court of justice. The Con-



stitution requires that before the President shall enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the U. S., and will to the best of my ability preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the U. S." The first act of Congress provided for oaths of office. All officers of the executive, legislative, and judicial departments of the states and the nation are required to take an oath similar to the foregoing. In June, 1778, Congress directed Washington to administer to the officers of the army, before leaving Valley Forge, an oath declaring the U. S. free and independent, renouncing allegiance to George III., king of Great Britain, and promising to defend the U. S. against him. By act of Congress, Aug. 3, 1861, the oath of allegiance for the cadets at West Point was amended so as to abjure all allegiance, sovereignty, or fealty to any state, county, or country whatsoever, and to promise unqualified support of the Constitution and the National Government. In 1865 oaths of allegiance were required as a condition of pardon of persons who had participated in the rebellion. The oath required of persons appointed to office from the Southern States, declaring that they had in no way aided or abetted the rebellion, was called the "Ironclad oath," and was modified as soon as all apprehension of further difficulty with the South had passed away. Following is substantially the oath administered to jurors entering upon their duties: "You shall well and truly try the issue between the parties and a true verdict give according to the evidence, so help you God." The juror sometimes kisses the New Testament. Witnesses must be sworn in with the words: "The evidence you shall give shall be the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, so help you God!" Witnesses must understand the nature of an oath, and on this ground young children are excluded as witnesses. According to statutes of Congress, any person having conscientious scruples against oaths may make a solemn affirmation. Jews are sworn on the Pentateuch, keep on their hats, and conclude their oaths with the words "So help me Jehovah." A Mohammedan is sworn on the Koran. In China, an oath is taken by breaking a dish on the witness box or beheading a fowl. The form of taking an oath is immaterial, the essential thing being that the witness acknowledges some binding effect derived from his sense of obligation to tell the truth. (See PERJURY.)

OCALA PLATFORM.—The National Farmers' Alliance, in convention at Ocala, Fla., Dec. 8, 1890, adopted a platform favoring the establishment of subtreasuries to lend money to the people at 2 per cent. interest, the unlimited coinage of silver, etc.

OGDEN, WILLIAM BUTLER.—(1805–1877.) An American merchant and railroad president; prominent in developing the northwest. He was first mayor of Chicago in 1837.

“OLYMPIA.”—A sixth-rate armored cruiser of 5,870 tons displacement, launched in 1892. Her armor is 4.75 inches of extreme thickness. She carries four 8-in.; ten 5-in. Q. F.; and fourteen 6-pdr. Q. F. guns. Her horse-power is 17,315 and her speed 21.7 knots. She was the flagship of the Asiatic squadron during the Spanish-American War and the warfare in the Philippines.

ORDER OF THE AMERICAN UNION.—A secret political party that had a brief existence from the time of its organization about 1870. Its purpose was to prevent persons of foreign birth, especially Roman Catholics, from acquiring political power.

ORDNANCE OFFICE.—In the United States, this department has charge of the arsenals and armories and furnishes all military supplies. The office is under the direction of a chief of ordnance, who receives a salary of \$5,500 per year.

“OREGON.”—A battleship launched in 1893. She is of 11,000 tons displacement, and on her trial trip maintained for four hours a speed of 16.79 knots. Her armor is 18 inches of extreme thickness. She carries four 13-in.; eight 8-in.; four 6-in. Q. F.; and twenty 6-pdr. Q. F. guns. She took part in the battle off Santiago, July 3, 1898, and with the “Brooklyn” forced the surrender of the “Cristobal Colon.” She left New York for the Philippines, Oct. 12, and joined the Asiatic squadron at Manila in March, 1899.

ORIGINAL PACKAGE.—The U. S. Supreme Court, in 1890, deciding a case that involved the enforcement of the Prohibition law in Iowa, held that manufacturers or merchants had the right to carry liquors into any state and sell them in the original package without reference to local prohibitory or restrictive laws. Congress immediately passed a law giving states control of liquors so imported even though in the original package.

OSBORN *vs.* UNITED STATES BANK.—This case involved the question whether a state has the right to tax the U. S. Osborn, auditor of the state of Ohio, seized \$100,000 from the U. S. bank at Chillicothe in payment of state taxes on banks. The opinion of the Supreme Court, which was delivered by Chief-justice Marshall, ordered the restitution of the money, though without interest.

OCTOBER STATES.—Those states which until recent times held their elections in October instead of November. All are now held in November.



PACIFIC RAILROADS.—After the discovery of gold in Cal., and the growing population of the Pacific coast that followed, there was urgent need of a transcontinental railroad. It was not possible to secure from private sources sufficient capital to construct a work so large; and so men looked to the Government for aid. In 1860 the platforms of both the Republican and the Democratic parties advocated national aid for this work.

1. President Lincoln approved, July 2, 1862, an act for the construction of the Union Pacific and the Central Pacific roads, the two together making one continuous line from Omaha to San Francisco, a total distance of 1,917 miles. For this they received the sum of \$55,092,017. A later act, July 1, 1864, gave to these roads a total of nearly 25,000,000 acres of land. The work was completed and the road opened May 10, 1869.

2. The Northern Pacific, to extend from Lake Superior to Puget Sound and thence to the Columbia River, about 2,000 miles in all, was chartered July 2, 1864, with land grants amounting to 47,000,000 acres. The work was begun in 1870 and completed in 1883.

3. July 27, 1866, the Atlantic and Pacific road was chartered to run from Springfield, Mo., to the Pacific at a point near the 35th parallel of latitude, a distance of about 2,000 miles, the subsidy being 42,000,000 acres of land.

4. The Southern Pacific road, to run from Marshall, Tex., through N. M. and Arizona to Los Angeles, Cal., along the 32d parallel of latitude. This road received about the same amount of land per mile as the others.

5. The Great Northern road, from St. Paul, Minn., to Puget Sound, parallel to the Northern Pacific, built without subsidy, was completed in 1893.

PARDONS.—In the United States the President has power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the Government except in cases of impeachment.

PARIS TRIBUNAL OF ARBITRATION.—A treaty between Great Britain and the U. S. signed at Paris, Feb. 29, 1892, regulating the killing of seals in Bering Sea.

PATTERSON, ELIZABETH.—(1785–1879.) Daughter of a Baltimore merchant; wife of Jerome Bonaparte, a brother of Napoleon; the latter refused to recognize the marriage and it was finally annulled.

PAUL *vs.* VIRGINIA.—A celebrated decision of the U. S. Supreme Court. One Samuel Paul, representing a N. Y. insurance company, had been fined for refusing to comply with the terms of a law of Va., regulating insurance companies not incorporated under the laws of

that state. The decision of the court was read by Justice Field, who upheld the constitutionality of the law, and contended that insurance policies are local transactions governed by local laws, corporations not being citizens under the Federal Constitution.

PAYNE, HENRY C.—Postmaster-general under appointment dated Jan. 8, 1902. He was born in Ashfield, Mass., in 1843. In 1863 he removed to Milwaukee, where he has since resided. He was a representative from Wisconsin upon the national Republican committee for twenty years. He was appointed postmaster of Milwaukee in 1876 by General Grant. Since then he has been largely engaged in mercantile interests.

PEACE CONFERENCES.—(1) The first of these met at Washington, Feb. 4, 1861, for the purpose of averting civil war, and represented 21 states and territories. Various amendments to the Constitution were proposed relating to the question of slavery, but no action was taken by Congress. (2) In July, 1864, President Lincoln authorized Horace Greeley to confer with representatives of the Confederacy at Niagara Falls with a view to ending the war. (3) Col. Jacques and J. R. Gillmore about the same time held an unsuccessful conference with Jefferson Davis at Richmond. (4) The last conference was arranged by Francis P. Blair, Sr. This was held at Hampton Roads, Feb. 3, 1865, between certain Confederate officials and Secretary Seward, President Lincoln also being within reach.

All these conferences came to nothing, as neither party would concede the main point at issue.

PECKHAM, RUFUS W.—Associate justice of the United States Supreme Court under commission dated December, 1895. He was born in Albany, N. Y., in 1838. He studied law in his father's office, and after his father's appointment to the Supreme Court bench in 1859, he formed a partnership with Lyman Tremain, his father's former partner. He was appointed associate justice by President Cleveland.

PEOPLE'S PARTY, OR POPULISTS.—This political party was definitely organized in Cincinnati, May 19, 1891, at a convention composed of various organizations, chiefly farmers, that had existed for many years. The purposes were the same as those of the convention at Ocala, Fla., in 1890. (See OCALA PLATFORM.) In 1892 the national convention met at Omaha, Neb., and nominated James B. Weaver for President, and James G. Field for Vice-president. In 1896 the national convention at St. Louis nominated William J. Bryan (the regular Democratic nominee) for President and Thomas E. Watson for Vice-president. In the election that followed, Bryan received 176 electoral



votes and Watson 27. The successful candidates, McKinley and Hobart, Republican, received 271 electoral votes.

"PIG-IRON" KELLEY.—A popular nickname of William D. Kelley of Pa., who for nearly 30 years was a member of Congress. He was prominent as an advocate of a protective tariff, particularly on iron and steel.

PIKE, ALBERT.—Born at Boston, 1809; died at Washington, D. C., 1891. A lawyer and author. He began the practice of law in Arkansas in 1836, and became a counsel for the Indians in their sale of lands to the Federal Government; commanded a squadron of Arkansas volunteer cavalry during the Mexican War; was appointed Indian commissioner of the Confederacy; obtained the rank of brig.-gen. in the Confederate army; practised law at Washington from about 1868-80; published "Prose Sketches and Poems," etc.

PINCHBACK, PINCKNEY BENTON STEWART.—Born at Macon, Ga., 1837. A Republican politician, of African descent. He was elected lieut.-gov. of La. in 1871; was acting gov. (1872-73); was elected U. S. senator from La., in 1873, but not seated; was admitted to the bar in 1886.

PINGREE, HAZEN S.—An American politician and social reformer. He was governor of Michigan, elected as a Republican, but was noted for his independence of his party; he zealously espoused the cause of the people against the great corporations. He was called "potato" Pingree on account of his plan, while mayor of Detroit, to assist the poor by giving them the use of unoccupied land within the city limits for the raising of potatoes. He died in London, Eng., June, 1901, while on a European tour with one of his sons.

PIRACY.—Robbery on the high seas. According to the law of nations, an indiscriminate preying on the human race, and not a desire to interfere with the prey of some distinct power. The crime is triable in any court, as the high seas are not under the jurisdiction of any one power. It is in the international sense of the word a crime against all nations. The difference between a pirate and a privateer is that the former is a sea rover who preys on the vessels and goods of any nation, or who makes descents upon land for purposes of plunder, while a privateer has for his purpose the preying upon the commerce of a hostile nation only. Search of a vessel by a public ship of another state is a war right only, but the right to search on suspicion of piracy exists at all times. The usual penalty for piracy is the confiscation of the vessel and the hanging of the crew, while the penalty for privateering is, at the most, imprisonment. (See PRIVATEERING.)

"PLUMED KNIGHT."—A name applied to James G. Blaine, used first by R. G. Ingersoll in a speech upholding Blaine's nomination for the presidency.

POPULATION.—The census of the U. S. now taken every ten years, was first taken in 1790, and the figures given for population previous to that date are estimates. In 1750 the thirteen colonies contained about 1,500,000; at the beginning of the Revolutionary War, about 3,000,000. The census of 1790 was 3,929,000, and that of 1900 was 75,559,000.

POWDERLY, TERENCE V.—(1849–.) American labor leader. From 1885–88 General Master Workman of the Knights of Labor.

PRESIDENTIAL SUCCESSION.—An act of Congress, approved Jan. 19, 1886, provided that the succession, after the Vice-president, should pass to the members of the cabinet in the following order: secretary of state, secretary of the treasury, secretary of war, attorney-general, postmaster-general, secretary of the navy, and secretary of the interior.

PRICE, STERLING.—(1809–1867.) A noted American politician and soldier.

PRIVATEERS.—Vessels owned and officered by private citizens, but carrying on war against a hostile nation, under a commission from the government known as a letter of marque. The U. S. has made much use of privateering owing to the comparatively small size of its navy. In 1856 the principal nations of Europe, by the declaration of Paris, signed an agreement to abolish privateering, but the U. S. refused to assent to this clause at that time, though the Government was forced by the great powers to abandon the practice in 1861. The case of the Alabama Claims grew out of privateering by the Southern Confederacy. The practice was prohibited by the Treaty of Washington, 1871.

PRIZE COURTS.—Courts when adjudicating property in vessels captured at sea from a belligerent are called prize courts. The judiciary act of 1789 constituted the U. S. District Courts prize courts, with appeal to the Supreme Court.

PROGRESSIVE LABOR PARTY.—A party formed by the radical or socialistic element which withdrew from the United Labor party at its annual session at Syracuse, N. Y., Aug. 19, 1886. They advocated a common inheritance of land, wealth, and industries, and upheld all the extreme socialistic doctrines.



PUBLIC DEBT.—Five states—Iowa, Vermont, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Illinois—have no interest-bearing debt, and there are six or seven other states whose bonded debts are mere bagatelles. Among the number are New Jersey, Nebraska, Kentucky, and California. To a foreigner or anyone else not familiar with the facts this would convey the impression that the Americans bear an extremely light burden of debt. Such an idea would be somewhat modified, however, by the knowledge that the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe pays interest on \$500,000,000 or more, the annual interest charge exceeding \$25,000,000—almost as much as the entire interest charge of the Federal Government. The Southern States have a bonded indebtedness of \$144,000,000 in round numbers. The total bonded indebtedness of all the states in 1890 was \$224,000,000, on which the annual interest charge was \$10,000,000. The total bonded debt of the states is about one-third of the national interest-bearing debt.

## NATIONAL DEBTS OF THE WORLD.

Argentine Republic.....	\$ 611,415,880	Italy.....	\$ 4,362,800,000
Australian Colonies.....	787,692,605	Japan .....	249,108,517
Austria-Hungary .....	2,322,658,340	Mexico .....	203,244,300
Austria.....	1,615,190,165	Netherlands .....	452,000,000
Hungary.....	657,468,075	Norway.....	37,596,079
Belgium.....	422,464,275	Paraguay.....	5,151,891
Bolivia.....	6,500,000	Persia.....	No debt
Brazil .....	598,658,310	Peru.....	367,226,890
Canada.....	268,112,295	Portugal .....	490,493,599
Chile .....	80,568,887	Roumania .....	171,292,560
China .....	38,500,000	Russia.....	3,731,103,600
Colombia.....	29,163,480	Servia.....	62,550,000
Denmark .....	54,369,325	Siam .....	No debt
Ecuador .....	13,738,490	Spain.....	1,299,500,000
Egypt.....	518,625,840	Sweden .....	66,412,279
France .....	6,427,500,000	Switzerland.....	7,543,273
Germany.....	307,500,000	Turkey.....	900,000,000
German States.....	1,827,977,750	United States .....	1,549,296,126
Great Britain.....	3,449,720,135	Uruguay .....	72,205,772
Greece.....	91,618,340	Venezuela .....	20,556,260
Hawaii.....	1,936,500		
India, British.....	928,355,780	Total.....	35,040,265,562

QUAY, MATTHEW STANLEY.—A Republican statesman, born in Dillsburg, Pa., in 1833. He graduated from Jefferson College in 1850 and was admitted to the bar in 1854. He rose to the rank of colonel in the Civil War. He filled many important state positions and was elected United States senator in 1887. In 1899 he was charged with using state funds for personal benefit and was acquitted. As the legislature could not agree upon a United States senator in 1899, Governor Stone appointed Mr. Quay. The Senate refused to recognize the appointment but he was re-elected by the legislature in 1901. His term of office expired in 1905.

"RALEIGH," THE.—A seventh-rate protected cruiser of the U. S. navy, which took part in the battle of Manila, under Commodore Dewey, May 1, 1898. She was launched in 1892 and has a tonnage of 3,215. She carries one 6-in.; ten 5-in. Q. F.; and eight 6-pdr. Q. F. guns. Her horse-power is 10,000 and her speed 19 knots.

RAMSEY, ALEXANDER.—The first territorial governor of Minnesota, was born near Harrisburg, Pa., in 1815. He was first elected to Congress as a Whig in 1842. He was territorial governor of Minnesota until 1853. He was mayor of St. Paul in 1855 and governor of the state of Minnesota (1860-63). He was elected to the United States Senate in 1863 and continued in that position for twelve years. President Hayes appointed him secretary of war in 1879. He served on the Utah Commission from 1882 to 1886.

RANDALL, ALEXANDER WILLIAMS.—(1819-1872.) An American Republican politician, born in New York. He was governor of Wisconsin (1857-61), and minister to Italy (1861-62), also postmaster-general (1866-69).

RANDALL, SAMUEL JACKSON.—(1828-1890.) A prominent Democratic statesman, born in Philadelphia, Pa. His early life was devoted to mercantile interests. He served two years in the Union army during the Civil War, and rose to the rank of captain. After serving in Congress as a Democrat, he returned to the army and was at Gettysburg. He was twenty-seven years in Congress and was speaker (1876-81). He was a leader of the protectionist Democrats and opposed the Force Bill.

RAWLINS, JOHN AARON.—(1831-1869.) An American soldier, born in East Galena, Illinois. He was admitted to the bar in 1854. He was made aid-de-camp to General Grant and accompanied him in the campaign from Cairo to Lee's surrender. President Grant made him secretary of war in 1869.

REAR-ADMIRAL.—Rank in the U. S. navy equal to that of major-general in the army. Established 1862.

RECONCENTRADOS.—A Spanish name applied to the Cuban farm laborers who, with their families, were by the decree of Capt.-gen. Weyler, Feb. 16, 1896, herded within Spanish military lines, in or near the cities.



## THOMAS BRACKETT REED

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*Who brought a new parliamentary era in Congress.*

TO BE Speaker of the House of Representatives means an exercise of power second only to that of the President of the United States.

To hold down to intelligent work the discordant elements of contending parties, requires not only a perfect knowledge of parliamentary law, but unerring judgment and, at times, inflexible firmness, even to the iron will of an autocrat. In the Fifty-first

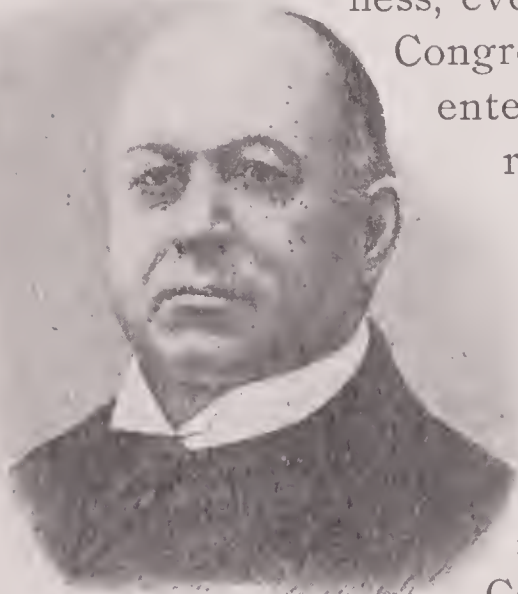
Congress, members of the political minority of the House entered upon a policy of resistance and obstruction, by refusing to vote when their names were called, in order

to break a quorum, thus to prevent the passage of measures that were obnoxious to them.

Thomas Brackett Reed, who had just been placed in the Speaker's chair by the dominant party, ruled that members should be counted as present, whether or not they chose to exercise their privilege of voting, and for that ruling he was denounced as "The Czar." Yet, under the ruling of Mr. Reed, Congress

transacted the business of the country, and the long-established custom of "filibustering," so called, by which a minority could block the wheels of legislation for days and weeks, was nearly abolished.

The practice of filibustering could have no standing, either in law or in common sense, but by long usage and sufferance, it had become so firmly established that it could only be uprooted by the most severe and stringent means. The only plausible excuse that could be given for the filibuster was that it enabled a minority to prevent vicious legislation. The truth is, however, that it was oftenest employed to gain a political end. There were many ways of filibustering, or "killing time," and in different Congresses they had been resorted to alike by members of all parties. The method most commonly practiced was the simple one already alluded to, that of refusing to respond to a call of the roll upon a question. A hundred or two hundred members, sitting under the very eye of the Speaker, were considered theoretically absent, according to a convenient parliamentary fiction, if they did not answer when their names were called. If the number of actually recorded votes was less than half of the entire membership, there



was "no quorum," and no business could be done. The utter absurdity of such a situation will be clearly seen when the fact is stated that, again and again, with perhaps a hundred members above a quorum in their seats, the House found itself with or without a quorum alternately, half a dozen times in as many half hours, as the obstructionists voted or refrained from voting. When, for instance, a bill was put upon its passage, and the silence of the minority left the House without a quorum, nothing could be done except to order a "call of the House." This is simply a call of the roll to disclose the presence or absence of members. To this call, everybody would respond with a cheerful "Here!" and the clerk's footing would show, perhaps, three-quarters of all the members present. Then another vote would be taken on the bill, during which the filibusters would remain eloquently silent, with the same result as before. Then another call of the House, a quorum; another yea-and nay-vote, no quorum.

And so it would go in ceaseless round, for hours and days and sometimes weeks—for there was no time limit to the possibilities of such a contest; it was purely a question of patience and endurance between the contending forces. Sometimes the majority would refuse to adjourn, and the House would be in continuous session for twenty, thirty or forty hours. At all times of the night, when a "call of the House" showed less than a quorum actually present, the sergeant-at-arms and his deputies were sent out in quest of absentees. At their homes or their lodgings, members were aroused from slumber and commanded in the name of the United States of America to appear forthwith at the bar of the House, under the pains and penalties in such cases made and provided. As soon as there was a quorum present, the round of filibustering was resumed. To the public, these exhibitions appeared—as, indeed, they were—farcical in the extreme, mere child's play, wholly unworthy of such a body. For great statesmen to so deport themselves seemed "the height of the ridiculous." Yet these scenes were repeated, year after year, for more than half a century. On one occasion a single man—Mr. Weaver, of Iowa—held the House in the grasp of his hand for nearly a week, during which time it did absolutely nothing. His immediate following was small and not sufficient to "break a quorum" by declining to vote, so that he was compelled to employ other means, such as to demand the reading in full of very long bills, reports or other documents, to compel a vote by yeas and nays on even the most trivial questions—each roll call requiring thirty minutes—and other time-consuming methods, while three hundred men sat in feeble helplessness.

The struggle over the adoption of the "Reed rules," during the session of 1889-90, was one of the most notable contests in the



history of Congress. The party in power had but a very small majority in the House, and could not expect the daily attendance of enough of its own members to maintain a quorum for the transaction of business. It was well understood that at this session a number of important measures, more or less political in nature and purpose, would be introduced, and the powerful minority, under able and shrewd leadership, was fully prepared to resist to the uttermost. It was clear to the leaders of the dominant party that little business would be done by that Congress unless the fangs of the filibusters could be drawn. It was determined to do this, on the twofold ground that it was in the interest of the public welfare and a party necessity.

The assertion may safely be made that no other member of that House was so well equipped to wield the gavel during those stormy sessions as Thomas B. Reed. His selection for Speaker was most fortunate—and this may be said without disparagement to the excellent gentlemen who were his competitors for that position of honor and power. During those weeks of unexampled turbulence and party strife, Mr. Reed seemed always to know just what to do and how to do it. His strength was not impaired by a single mistake; he made no ruling that he was obliged to revoke. His judgment and his courage were often put to severe test, but not once were they found wanting.

The struggle began very soon after the organization of the House. The new rules were only adopted after a fight which was prolonged for more than three weeks, and Speaker Reed found it necessary to apply in advance the principle of "counting a quorum." He did this at the first attempt to filibuster. The roll had been called for a ye-and-nay vote, and the members of the opposition had sat in silence, as others, on both sides of the House, had so often done before. The clerk's tally-sheet showed the number who had voted to be a dozen or so less than a quorum. The Speaker scanned the chamber, and in his blindest tones called the names of fifteen or twenty "silent" gentlemen whom he saw before him, and directed the clerk to record them as present, to make a legal quorum. Instantly the House was in an uproar. Most of those who had been thus "counted" against their will, sprang to their feet and denounced the action of the Speaker in unmeasured terms. Gentlemen on the other side rose to defend the chair, and the wordy battle was waged fast and furious, while the Speaker rapped in vain for order.

There were scores of similar scenes during the next few weeks. At times the House was in a state of confusion and excitement that defied description—a dozen members talking at once, each trying to make himself heard above the others; a hundred more striding along

the aisles and eddying around the different speakers, at the centers of excitement. Often the chamber was transformed into a literal bedlam. Men, who were usually staid and dignified, were swept entirely off their feet by the storm of partisan rancor and passion. Many harsh and bitter words were spoken, and twice members on the floor came to blows. Several times the Speaker found it necessary to direct the sergeant-at-arms to compel disorderly members to take their seats. It seems scarcely possible that such scenes could occur in such a body as the Congress of the United States. Throughout the long, bitter struggle, Speaker Reed never relaxed for an instant—never receded an inch. Unvexed by the raillery, irony and denunciation that were constantly hurled at him, he sat calm and unmoved, a veritable Ajax, as he defied the lightnings and thunders of wrath that played about him, extorting the admiration even of his most bitter adversaries.

Mr. Reed's bearing during this trying time is well illustrated by an incident which occurred. One day Mr. Enloe, of Tennessee,—whose quiver was always full of sharp-pointed arrows,—was assailing the Speaker with keen sarcasm, and spoke of him as one "who, like Providence,

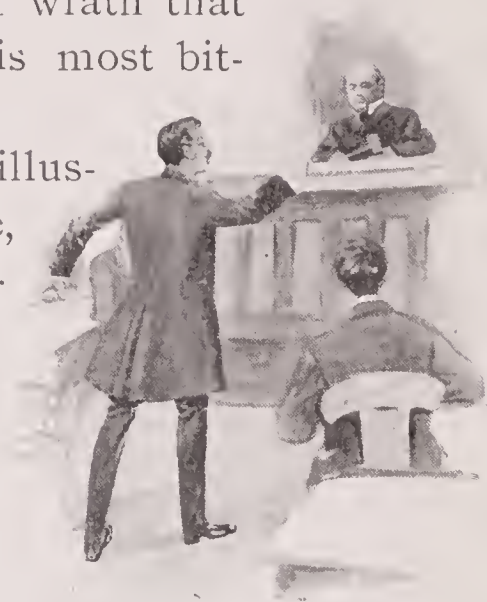
‘Moves in a mysterious way  
His wonders to perform.’”

Instantly Mr. Sawyer, of New York, of Mr. Reed's party, leaped to his feet, and, as he pointed to the Speaker, recited the other two lines of the verse, which begins a well-known hymn:—

“He plants his footsteps in the sea,  
And rides upon the storm.”

A tempest of laughter and applause swept over the chamber, greatly to the confusion of Mr. Enloe.

When the opposition members found that they could not prevent the Speaker from “counting” them when present, they took to absenting themselves, in the flesh as well as in the spirit, and for several days the seats on that side of the chamber were almost entirely vacant. The majority party was only able to adopt the “Reed rules” by securing, through extraordinary effort, a full quorum of its own members. Such was the emergency that two members who were seriously ill insisted upon being taken to the Capitol in carriages, from which they were borne,—one of them lying upon a cot,—to the hall of the House, where they cast their votes, while the uproarious applause of their party friends gave tribute to their pluck. As soon as the new rules had been adopted, the House proceeded to “do business.” In





several Congresses thereafter, the opposite party controlled the House, but the "Reed rules" were adopted, which fact gave to Mr. Reed the largest and fullest vindication. There still are, and always will be, minor methods by which advantage may be taken of parliamentary technicalities to cause brief delays. The machinery of legislation may thus be clogged, but it cannot be stopped for days and weeks; the greatly increased power of the Speaker under the new regime enables him to clear away the obstructions and let the wheels go round.

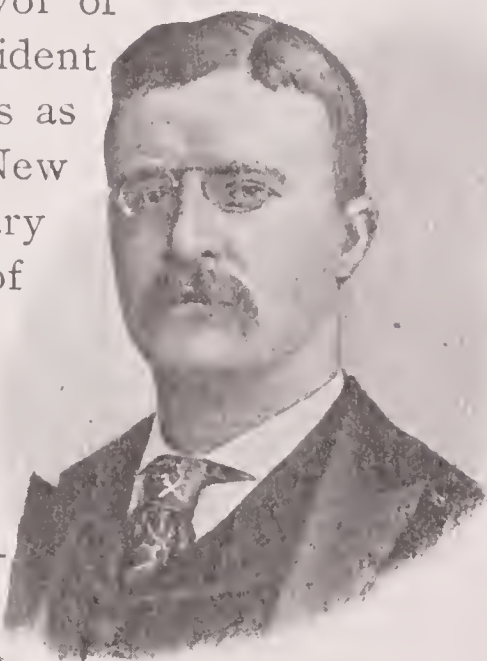
Mr. Reed was born at Portland, Maine, in 1839. He was admitted to the bar in 1865. He became active in politics, and in 1877 was elected to the lower House of Congress, in which body he served continuously for more than twenty years. He sat for six years in the Speaker's chair, and the judgment of history will rank him as the peer of any of the long line of distinguished men who have filled that position. While upon the floor, he was a leader in debate, and always commanded attention, for everybody wanted to hear him. His portly form, full round face and commanding presence made him a unique figure, while his singularly clear reasoning, his apt and clever way of "putting things," his indifference to criticism, his droll, ready wit and keen repartee, invested his speeches, at all times and places, with a charm that few were able to resist. To these may be added the inimitable "Yankee" twang in his voice, which he knows how to use with irresistible effect. When speaking in the heat of excited debate, his voice is harsh and piercing. During the fight in Congress over the rules, some one compared it to "a buzz saw tearing through a pine knot," and the simile is a good one. In 1899 Mr. Reed voluntarily retired from Congress, and entered upon the practice of law in New York. He was a pungent writer and had been for years a much-sought contributor to current periodical literature. He died in Washington, D. C., of uræmia, in 1902.

## THEODORE ROOSEVELT

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*A "Rough Rider," twentieth century statesman.*

A CONSPICUOUS and unique figure in the progressive politics and civilization that mark the beginning of the twentieth century, is Theodore Roosevelt, of New York. Few men, indeed, have made within so short a time such an extended and brilliant record in public life. Three years a member of the New York legislature, a leader of his party in state politics, candidate for mayor of the city of New York, six years in Washington as president of the United States civil service commission, two years as president of the board of police commissioners of New York City, again in Washington as assistant Secretary of the Navy, prominent in the war with Spain as leader of the "Rough Riders," governor of the state of New York for two years, then Vice-president of the United States—and he was only forty-two when elected to the eminent position last named. It would seem that all these, within a period of eighteen years, would have compassed the limit of possible human effort, and yet Mr. Roosevelt has found time to write half a score of books, besides many newspaper and magazine articles on current political and economic subjects, and has spent months at a time in western ranch life and in hunting "big game" in the mountain fastnesses of the "Rockies." With a tireless and inexhaustible energy of mind and body, that is almost marvelous, he has performed the arduous and exacting duties of his "strenuous" life, and the strain, instead of impairing his mental and physical powers, seems but to have strengthened and made more intense their vigor and vitality. He is almost an ideal type of American manhood. His fearless conduct, in many ways, has made him, particularly to the younger generation, a popular idol, and everywhere he is familiarly known as "Teddy."



Mr. Roosevelt was born in New York, in 1858. He came of an old Knickerbocker family, prominent for many generations in the history of Manhattan Island. The stock was noted for its instincts of freedom and patriotism and its uprightness of conduct. Theodore was prepared for college by private teachers and graduated at Harvard



in 1880. While at college, he was noted for his good scholarship and for the hearty zeal with which he engaged in athletic sports. Thus mind and body were trained together for the active life which destiny had in store for him. He spent a year in travel, at the same time continuing his studies. He took an especial interest in the purification of political and official life and the general extension of civil service rules to all public servants. He was an intimate friend and associate of George William Curtis, who was one of the ablest champions of civil service reform. Mr. Roosevelt soon found opportunity for a practical application of his ideas. At the age of twenty-four, he was elected a member of the New York legislature and introduced the first civil service reform bill ever presented to that body. It was passed in 1883, about the same time that a similar measure was passed by the Congress of the United States. He represented the best element in politics, and advanced rapidly to leadership. In 1884 he was chairman of the New York delegation in the Republican national convention. Two years later he accepted a nomination as candidate for mayor of New York City, on an independent ticket and a "good government" platform. He was indorsed by the Republican party and received a large vote, but was defeated.

In 1889 President Harrison appointed Mr. Roosevelt a member of the United States civil service commission, and he served six years as president of that board. He resigned to become president of the board of police commissioners of New York City. Here he found a wide field for reformatory effort and with characteristic zeal entered upon the work of reorganization. His administration was marked by a vigorous and relentless enforcement of all laws and ordinances, especially those relating to the liquor traffic, gambling and the suppression of vice. He incurred alike the commendation of all lovers of order and good morals, and the hostility of the large criminal and disorderly class of the great city. By this time his courage, energy and high administrative ability had brought him into national prominence, and in 1897 President McKinley called him to the position of assistant Secretary of the Navy. To him was largely due the splendid condition of the naval establishment when the Spanish-American War began. Soon after he entered upon his duties, he asked for eight hundred thousand dollars, and later for five hundred thousand more, to be expended in naval target practice. By many, this was declared to be a reckless and extravagant waste of money, but the result at Manila and Santiago silenced the critics and abundantly justified Mr. Roosevelt. It was he that suggested the assignment of Commodore Dewey to the command of the Asiatic squadron, and again his keen perception and excellent judgment were shown.

When the war cloud began to thicken, Mr. Roosevelt determined to go to the field. It was earnestly desired that he would remain in his position at Washington, for the duties of which he had a peculiar fitness, but his attack of "war fever" was in its most malignant form, and nothing could dissuade him from his purpose. For some time before war was declared, Mr. Roosevelt had judged, from the trend of events, that hostilities were inevitable, and he had been busily engaged in making preliminary arrangements for raising a body of troops. Formerly, he had spent much time in the far West, where he owned a ranch. He had mingled freely with the ranchmen, cowboys and hunters, and had entered into their sports and their free-and-easy life with the keenest zest. He had come among them as a "tenderfoot" from the East, but it did not take him long to win not only their respect, but their affectionate admiration. His fame extended among them far beyond the limits of his large personal acquaintance. With his first thought of "going to war," Mr. Roosevelt's heart went out to the western cowboys, in whom he discerned the true mettle that marks the soldier. He conceived the idea of forming a cavalry regiment, to consist chiefly of these rovers of the plains—hardy ranchers, hunters and frontiersmen, men of courage and endurance, who had spent their lives out of doors and on the backs of their horses.

As soon as the bugle blast called to arms, Mr. Roosevelt sent his resignation to the President, who accepted it, and at once authorized him to raise a regiment of volunteer cavalry,—for the subject had been thoroughly talked over between the President and himself. The seed which had been sown by his correspondence brought forth an immediate and abounding crop. No sooner had he issued his call than he was deluged, almost overwhelmed, with applications for enlistment. These very soon reached to many times the maximum number, and he could have raised five regiments as easily as one. From the multitude of applicants the best were selected, men of perfect health and physique, and whose courage—"sand," to use an expressive army word—could not be doubted. The men underwent a rigid examination, the major part of them by Roosevelt in person, and the abundance of material from which to choose afforded the largest liberty of selection. It may fairly be questioned whether, in all the armies of history, so fine a body of volunteers was ever formed. Although the "cowboy" element was greatly predominant, the membership of the regiment was not confined to that active and enterprising class. Roosevelt had a wide personal acquaintance throughout the country, and from every section came the most urgent appeals from young men for permission to join the "Rough Riders." Many



of these applications were from college students and men in professional life, including sons of wealthy and distinguished families. These men sought no preferment; they wanted to go just as privates, to share the hardships, the dangers and the glory which they believed were in store for Roosevelt and his men. So it was that in this distinctive organization, whose record justified the highest expectations, the college-bred youth and the unlettered cowboy rode side by side; the heir to millions and the rough outcast from society slept under the same blanket. Roosevelt was proud of his men—as proud as they were of him. The rendezvous of the regiment was at San Antonio, Texas, where the organization was effected and horses and equipments were received. At the urgent solicitation of Roosevelt, Dr. Leonard Wood, one of his most intimate friends, was commissioned colonel, while Roosevelt, by his own choice, contented himself with the position of lieutenant-colonel. From the outset, the regiment of “Rough Riders” was an object of universal and intense popular interest.

The days were diligently devoted to instruction and drill. The men were ardent and ambitious to the last degree, and yielded readily to the requirements of strict military discipline. The rough men of the frontier, who had hitherto known little of restraint, were as tractable as children in their eagerness to become soldiers worthy of their leader, and of the fame that the regiment had gained even before it had left its camp. As soon as it had been determined to send a land

force to Cuba, although not a tenth of the volunteers could go, Roosevelt appealed so earnestly that a part of the regiment was attached to the army of General Shafter.

The horses could not be taken for lack of sufficient transportation, but the men were more than eager to go and serve as infantry. One battalion—four companies—of the “Rough Riders,” accompanied by Colonel Wood and Lieutenant-colonel Roosevelt, embarked at Tampa, Florida, on the fifteenth of June. In due time it arrived and bore a conspicuous and honorable part in the operations that resulted in the fall of Santiago and the surrender of its garrison as prisoners of war. On July 1, Lieutenant-colonel Roosevelt distinguished himself by leading the charge of the “Rough Riders” and the Ninth cavalry up San Juan hill. The “Rough Riders” suffered severely, two captains—Capron and O’Neill, both most gallant and intrepid officers—being among the slain. Roosevelt shared all the hardships and dangers of his men, and they came to regard him with an affection that rose almost to idolatry. In July, Wood was promoted to the rank of brigadier-general and Roosevelt to that of



colonel. The troops suffered much from miasmatic diseases, resulting from exposure to the tropical heat in the rainy season. There was loud complaint of insufficient supplies of medicines and food, and of the bad character of the meat that formed an important part of the ration. Colonel Roosevelt was the author of the famous "Round-robin." This was a vigorous statement to the Washington authorities, which set forth the condition of the soldiers in Cuba, criticized the commissary and medical departments, and urged that for sanitary reasons the troops be returned to the United States at the earliest possible day. This paper was signed by a large number of officers, the signatures being in such form that they radiated from a center like the spokes of a wheel. This equalized the responsibility for the document, which, strictly construed, was in violation of military usage and discipline. It proved speedily effective, and the volunteers, as soon as they could be spared, were sent to a great convalescent camp on Long Island.

In September, very soon after his return from Cuba, Colonel Roosevelt was nominated by the Republican state convention for governor of New York, and was elected. His administration was eminently satisfactory, and in 1900 he was nominated for Vice-president, on the ticket with William McKinley. He was elected by an overwhelming majority, and was inaugurated March 4, 1901.


Mr. Roosevelt is a fluent, vigorous and graceful writer, with a singular clearness and felicity of expression. His historical work is characterized by accuracy, breadth and fairness. Among his well-known books are "Hunting Tales of a Ranchman," "Ranch Life and the Hunting Trail," "Naval War of 1812," "Life of Thomas H. Benton," "Life of Gouverneur Morris," "History of the City of New York," "Essays on Practical Politics," "Imperial History of the British Navy" (in collaboration with Capt. A. T. Mahan), "Hero Tales from American History" (joint authorship with Henry Cabot Lodge). His most ambitious work is "The Winning of the West," in four volumes—a history, delightfully told, of the acquirement by the United States of the territory west of the Alleghanies. His last work, "The Rough Riders," is, as its title indicates, a narrative of the organization and service of that famous regiment. No more thrilling book has been published in recent years. Mr. Roosevelt has a charming home at Oyster Bay, Long Island. His first wife was Miss Alice Lee, of Boston, who lived but two years after their marriage. In 1886 he married Miss Carow, of New York. They have six children, of whom four are sons.



## WILLIAM THOMAS SAMPSON

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*The record of "a life on the ocean wave."*



IN THE story of the brief war between the United States and Spain, during the spring and summer of 1898, the name of Rear-Admiral Sampson will always be conspicuous. He was, subject to the orders of the President, chief in command of the American naval forces in Atlantic waters. He had much to do with planning and executing the operations that resulted in the total destruction of the Spanish power on the sea, and the great upward leap of the United States to a commanding position among the nations of the earth. The story which tells how the fleets of Spain were swept from the seas almost in a day, is as strange as the wondrous tale of Aladdin, and the changes that were wrought would seem to have been possible only by the aid of magic. History was made, and the map of the earth was changed, with marvelous rapidity during those months from April to August, while the world looked on and wondered.

William T. Sampson was born in Palmyra, New York, in 1840. When seventeen years old, he was appointed a cadet in the Naval Academy at Annapolis. He was a good student, ambitious to excel, and graduated with credit in 1861. The Civil War had just begun, and a wide field was thus opened for practice in the art of war, on land and sea. From the academy, young Sampson was ordered into immediate service, beginning with the Potomac fleet. The ships were chiefly occupied with blockade and patrol duty, and there was very little actual fighting, for the Confederates had practically no vessels with which to give battle. In 1862 Sampson was commissioned a lieutenant and transferred to the Gulf squadron, where the dull daily and nightly round of watching the ports was varied now and then by the chase of a blockade-runner. In 1863 he was ordered on shore duty for a year, as instructor at the Annapolis academy, but in 1864 he was again afloat, as executive officer of the "Patapsco," which was attached to the South Atlantic squadron. He was on this vessel when she participated in the attack on Charleston, South Carolina, in January, 1865. While passing between Fort Sumter and Fort Moultrie, she

was destroyed by a torpedo. Sampson, who was in command of the ship, was blown overboard, but was not seriously injured, and sustained himself by swimming until rescued by a picket-boat.

After the war, Sampson served for a time on the European station, and then at the Naval Academy, the head of the department of natural philosophy. He was then ordered to the command of the "Congress" and sent on a special mission to Greenland, with coal and other supplies for the "Polaris," with which Captain Hall was engaged in Arctic exploration. From 1876 to 1878 Sampson was again at the Naval Academy, at the head of the department of physics and chemistry. Himself a thorough student, and with intellectual gifts and attainments of a high order, he was well equipped for teaching, and his services at Annapolis were in the largest degree successful. From the Academy, he was sent with a party of scientists to Wyoming, to observe an eclipse of the sun. Thenceforward, until the breaking out of the war with Spain, he was engaged in various duties, on sea and shore.

On the seventeenth of February, 1898, two days after the sinking of the battleship "Maine," in the harbor of Havana, Sampson, now a commodore, was appointed chairman of a board to inquire into the cause of that tragic event, which stirred to their profoundest depths the emotions of the American people. The board met at Havana and a month was occupied in the investigation. A vast amount of testimony was taken,—much of it conflicting and contradictory,—covering the whole subject, from both the American and Spanish points of view. In brief, the report set forth that the "Maine" had been destroyed by the explosion of a submarine torpedo or mine, but declined to express an opinion fixing the responsibility for the act of setting off the explosive agent. At all events, it is beyond question that the destruction of the vessel, with a loss of more than two hundred lives, struck the blow that severed the tightly strained relations between the two countries, and precipitated the war, that followed two months later.

With the first appearance of the war cloud, Commodore Dewey had been dispatched to command the squadron on the Asiatic station. Commodore Sampson, designated as acting rear-admiral, was assigned to command in the waters around Cuba, which, it was easy to foresee, would be the storm center. Before war was actually declared, he was directed to assemble a powerful fleet at Key West, Florida. He acted with great energy and promptness, and when the United States Minister at Madrid was given his passports and the tocsin was sounded, he was ready for immediate operations. His first duty was to establish a blockade at Havana and other principal ports of Cuba,



in accordance with the proclamation of the President. Gunboats, monitors and other craft were stationed for this service, while the admiral retained a mobilized squadron, composed of battleships, cruisers and auxiliary vessels, for active duty wherever emergency might require. In the early part of May, he sailed with this squadron to the eastward of Cuba and around the island of Porto Rico. He stopped at San Juan, the principal port of the latter, long enough to engage the Spanish forts in a sharp action, but without definite result. Then he continued his voyage, with the occasional chase of a Spanish gunboat, along the southern coast of Cuba, to a point near the eastern end.

At this time a great ferment was caused by the appearance, and almost immediately the sudden disappearance, of the Spanish fleet of fighting ships, commanded by Admiral Cervera, which, it was known, had sailed from Spain some time before. After crossing the Atlantic, it had coaled at a Central American port and sailed thence for Cuban waters. It had been reported at various points and then had passed out of sight as completely as though it had gone to the bottom of the sea. Along the entire Atlantic coast, there was a keen apprehension of danger, for it was feared that Cervera might, at any hour, appear at Charleston, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York or Boston and levy tribute or inflict incalculable damage with his guns. All of the Atlantic and Gulf harbors were mined, and Sampson and Schley—the latter commanding a separate “flying squadron”—were sailing about in eager quest of tidings of the Spanish fugitive. It was believed that the latter was not strong enough to justify him in giving battle, and that he would endeavor to evade the main body of the American fleet.

As days passed, and the hostile fleet was not reported at any point north of the Antilles, the belief became fixed that Cervera had taken refuge in one of the Cuban ports. Sampson was strongly of the opinion that he was in the harbor of Cienfuegos, and directed Schley to establish a blockade there with his squadron. At Washington, the belief was fixed that Cervera was at Santiago, and a “hurry” order from the President sent Schley to that place with all speed. Schley ascertained beyond question, by the aid of a trusty scout, that the Spanish vessels were there. Sampson, with all his fighting force, at once joined Schley and assumed the command. With so great a fleet of powerful ships, it was not difficult to establish a blockade through which Cervera, with his four ships, and two auxiliary vessels, could not hope to break. The capture of the Spanish ships seemed to be only a question of time, the length of which would depend on the success of the operations of the land forces against Santiago. These were soon in progress under the direction of General Shafter, with a command of some thirty thousand men.

The blockade continued nearly six weeks. During all this time, Acting Rear-admiral Sampson was in personal command, with his headquarters on the cruiser "New York," which was his flagship. The sudden irruption of the Spanish squadron, and the battle which immediately ensued on the third of July, are described in the sketch of Rear-admiral Schley, who chanced to be in actual personal command during the action, owing to the temporary absence of Sampson. The latter had gone with his flagship to Siboney, for a conference with General Shafter. It was believed at the time, and it is probably true, that the Spanish sentries had observed the departure of the "New York," and had reported the fact to Admiral Cervera, whereupon the latter determined to leave the harbor and make the attempt—a forlorn hope at best—to break through the blockading line, during the absence of one of the swiftest of the American ships. As soon as the thunder of the guns reached the ears of Sampson at Siboney, he hastened back with all possible speed; but when he arrived, the combat was ended, so far as concerned five of the Spanish ships, whose smoking wrecks strewed the shore. The chase after the "Colon," which had escaped to the westward, was in progress, but the fugitive and the pursuers were then twenty miles away. Sampson steamed after them, but could not overtake them until the "Colon" had run upon the rocks and had struck her colors.

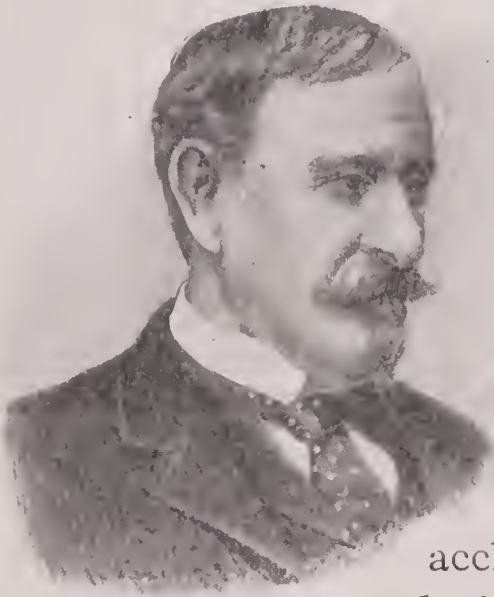


An unfortunate controversy arose, and was long continued, between the friends of Sampson and Schley, respectively, over the award of honors for the wondrous victory. The friends of Sampson were not disposed to concede to Schley as much credit as the adherents of the latter felt to be his just due, and much unnecessary warmth was engendered. The matter even found its way into Congress, where the champions of both these gallant commanders engaged in heated debate over their respective merits. It was an unseemly quarrel and never should have been begun. On that historic day at Santiago, there was glory enough to "go around," from the highest officer down to the men who, stripped to the buff, fed the furnace fires, or oiled the joints of those mighty fighting machines. Sampson and Schley were both promoted to the rank of rear-admiral, and both deserved it. The honors of that day belong equally to Sampson, chief in command, whose temporary absence was in the direct line of his duty, and to Schley, who, as next in rank, assumed the command and directed the battle, magnificent in its success. Dewey, Sampson and Schley are the naval trinity of 1898. Time cannot dim the luster of their achievements.



## WINFIELD SCOTT SCHLEY

*His laurels, won at Santiago, will not fade.*



THIS is one of the imperishable names of history. The world cannot forget that mighty naval combat at Santiago, on the southern coast of Cuba, where the six fighting ships of Admiral Cervera's fleet were burned, sunk or beached, and their crews killed, wounded or captured. This battle virtually ended the war with Spain, which had been declared but a little more than two months before, and which had been begun amid the thunder of Dewey's guns at Manila. Schley was not the fixed commander of the American fleet at Santiago, but when the Spanish ships steamed out of the harbor, Commodore Sampson was miles away, whither he had been called on official business, and the battle was fought under the immediate personal direction of the next officer in rank—Winfield Scott Schley. The very skies above were yet reëchoing the acclaim with which the wondering and admiring nations had greeted the achievement of Dewey, and the officers and "jackies" of the squadron in Caribbean waters—the men on the bridge and on the quarter-deck, in the maintop, in the turret and in the engine room—had before them an example, to emulate which urged them to their utmost endeavor and filled their breasts with the flame of patriotic enthusiasm. How well they acquitted themselves on that immortal day was abundantly attested by the battered and blackened wrecks that strewed the Cuban shore. Santiago was the complement of Manila. Dewey's exploit came first and so surprised the world. After that, the result at Santiago did not create astonishment, for it was expected; but the people of all nations, none the less, paid fitting tribute to the valor and steadiness of officers and men—their skill in handling the ships and in serving the guns. Manila sent the American flag to the peak; Santiago nailed it there.

Winfield Scott Schley was born in Maryland, in 1839. As a boy he evinced a fondness for the sea, and the chief desire of his early years was gratified when, at the age of seventeen, he was appointed to a cadetship in the Naval Academy at Annapolis. He graduated in 1860, just in time to find immediately active service in the Civil War.

During the first two years of the war he was attached to the Gulf blockading squadron. There was little fighting for the vessels to do; month in and month out they rode at anchor or cruised along the coast, watching the harbors and ports to prevent the egress or ingress of Confederate vessels. It was a lazy, uneventful life, irksome to one who longed to participate actively in the stirring events of the time; who desired an opportunity to show his mettle. In 1864 Schley was transferred to the gunboat "Wateree," of the Pacific squadron. He had gone up one grade and was now a lieutenant. He distinguished himself, in 1865, for his coolness, bravery and efficiency, during an insurrection of Chinese coolies in the Middle Chincha Islands. The same year he rendered important service which brought him into official notice, at San Salvador, whither his vessel had been ordered for the protection of American interests during a revolution which was in progress there. In 1866 he was promoted to the grade of lieutenant-commander and spent two years as instructor at the Naval Academy. Three years of service on the China station followed. In June, 1871, Schley was a participant in some sharp fighting which resulted in the capture of the Korean forts. He led the assaulting column of marines and his gallantry abundantly proved the stuff of which he was made. Again on shore duty, Schley spent three years more at the Naval Academy, his work as an instructor being of a high order. He was made a commander in 1874, and thereafter for ten years his service was chiefly of a routine character, with no opportunity for mark-making.

In 1884 Commander Schley was selected for a most important duty—one which required the highest nautical skill, judgment and intrepidity. He was sent to the relief of the Greely Arctic Expedition. Two relief expeditions which had preceded him had entirely failed of their object. He found Greely and those that remained of his party, on the verge of death from starvation. Some had already died, and those who yet lived were subsisting on the most meager daily allowance of food. Schley brought them home, and the whole civilized world was generous in the bestowal of its plaudits for his intrepid conduct. He was officially commended in the most exalted terms; the Maryland legislature voted him thanks and a gold watch; the Massachusetts Humane Society presented him a handsome gold medal.

The war with Spain, in 1898, opened to Schley the door to fame. He had been promoted to the rank of commodore in February of that year, and was in command of the cruiser "New York." Just before war was declared he was transferred to the "Brooklyn." At the outbreak of hostilities he was placed in command of the "Flying Squadron." This was composed of fast vessels, and was intended to move



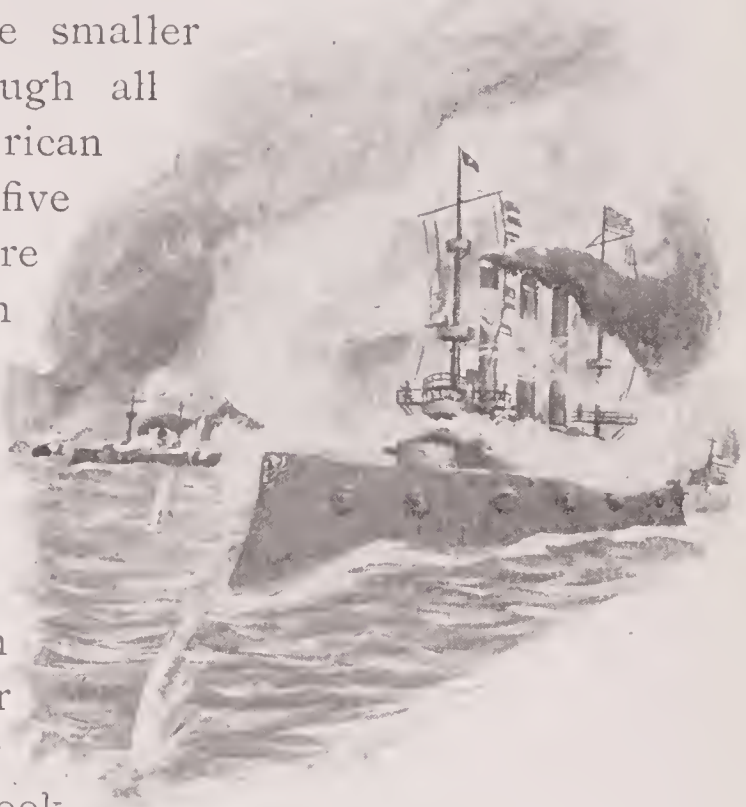
rapidly to any point where it might be needed. On May 19 he was ordered by Commodore Sampson, chief in command of the naval forces, to blockade the Cuban port of Cienfuegos. It was believed that the formidable Spanish fleet, commanded by Admiral Cervera, which had recently arrived in Cuban waters, had taken refuge in that port. The Spanish fighting ships had disappeared and the anxiety at Washington to fix their whereabouts was excessive. Sampson was confident that they were at Cienfuegos, while at Washington the belief was strong that Cervera had sought shelter in the land-locked harbor of Santiago. Sampson was overruled, and an order from the Navy Department directed Schley to sail with all speed to Santiago. He arrived there near the end of May and closely blockaded the narrow outlet. A daring scout, Lieutenant Victor Blue, with the aid of a disguise, reached a point overlooking the harbor and made the discovery, of paramount importance, that Cervera's fleet was there. Then Sampson was ordered thither in haste, with all the naval force at his command. Schley had with him none of the heavy battleships, and it was feared that he had not sufficient weight of metal to cope successfully with Cervera, should the latter sail out of the harbor and give him battle. Then followed the blockade of nearly six weeks. Commodore Sampson arrived and assumed command. He gathered a mighty force of battleships and cruisers, and every moment, night and day, watchful eyes were fixed upon the harbor entrance. Meanwhile, the land forces arrived and, under the command of General Shafter, drew around the city of Santiago a line dotted with the battleflags which bore the stars and stripes.

At 8:45 o'clock on the morning of July 3, Commodore Sampson, with his flagship, the cruiser "New York," steamed away to Siboney to meet an official engagement with General Shafter, for a conference in regard to pending operations. An hour later, the lookout sentries on the blockading vessels discovered the foremost of the Spanish fleet, under full steam in the narrow channel, rapidly approaching the open sea. Behind her, in procession, came the others. Instantly every vessel in the American fleet presented a scene of the greatest conceivable activity. Officers flew to their posts and every man of those matchless crews was in his place in an instant, ready for battle. In the absence of Sampson, the command devolved upon Schley.

The fighting was fast and furious. The big battleships—the "Oregon," "Iowa," "Indiana," "Texas" and "Massachusetts"—closed in and hurled their mighty projectiles against the Spanish ships, with immediate and deadly results. The enemy made vigorous response, but few of the shots took effect. It was clearly proved that the gunnery of the trained, intelligent American crews was immeasurably

superior to that of the Spaniards. The fugitive squadron, the purpose of which was, if possible, to escape, was composed of four first-class fighting ships—the “Maria Teresa,” which was Cervera’s flagship, “Almirante Oquendo,” “Vizcaya” and “Christobal Colon”—and the “Pluton” and “Furor,” of the smaller class known as torpedo-boat destroyers. Through all these the great shot and shell from the American guns plunged and tore their way. Within fifty-five minutes the “Vizcaya” and the “Oquendo” were in flames on the beach to the westward,—for in that direction the escape had been attempted,—the “Teresa” had gone to the bottom, and Admiral Cervera and part of the crew had been rescued from the water by boats from the American ships, and the “Pluton” and “Furor” had sunk, carrying down most of those on board. Only the “Colon” remained afloat. For a time she escaped the missiles and sped along the coast at her utmost possible speed. The “Brooklyn” and the “Oregon” gave chase. The race continued three or four hours, and was one of the most exciting episodes in the history of naval warfare. The “Colon” did its utmost to “show her heels” to her pursuers, and the “Oregon” and “Brooklyn,” under forced draft, fairly leaped through the water in their eagerness to overhaul their prey. A shot, unluckily for the “Colon,” disabled her machinery, and the race was lost. Her head was turned to the shore and she was run aground. The men were ordered to save themselves as best they might. It was Manila over again; not one of the Spanish vessels escaped destruction.

After the war, Schley was promoted to rear-admiral in recognition of his services. He was a member of the Porto Rican military commission, to arrange for the evacuation by the Spanish forces and the transfer of the government to the United States, and made an able and exhaustive report on the condition of the island and its people. Schley was received with great enthusiasm by the people of New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Richmond, Chicago and other cities. He was presented with a magnificent jeweled sword by citizens of Philadelphia, another by the Royal Arcanum, at Carnegie Hall, New York, and citizens of Maryland gave him a superb gold medal set with jewels.





SANTIAGO BATTLE OF.—Fought July 1-3, 1898, after which the whole Spanish army, under General Toral, capitulated. The American forces lost 100 killed, 597 wounded, and 62 missing. (See SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR, THE.)

SANTIAGO HARBOR, BATTLE OF.—Fought July 3, 1898, between the Spanish fleet under Rear-admiral Pascual Cervera and the American fleet. The Spaniards were defeated. (See SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR, THE.)

SCHURZ, CARL.—(1829-1906.) A German-American journalist, and soldier. He was connected with a revolutionary movement in Germany and was arrested. On his escape he came to America in 1852. He became a prominent Republican and was U. S. minister to Spain in 1861. He resigned to enter the American army in the Civil War and took part in seven battles, attaining the rank of major-general of volunteers. He was U. S. senator for Missouri (1869-75). He was prominent in the "Liberal-Republican" movement of 1872. From 1877 to 1881 he was secretary of the interior. He took an active part in the "Mugwump" movement of 1884. He edited the N. Y. "Evening Post" from 1881-84. He wrote "The Life of Henry Clay."

SCOTT, GENERAL WINFIELD.—(1786-1866.) This noted American general was born at Petersburg, Va. He was a graduate of William and Mary College, and was admitted to the bar in 1806. He became a captain in 1808 and took part in the war of 1812. He was at Queens-town Heights (1812), Chippewa and Lundy's Lane (1814). He became brigadier-general and brevet major-general in 1814. He was in South Carolina in the Nullification trouble in 1832. He was active in the Seminole and Creek Wars (1835-37). He was present at the bloodless Aroostook War over the boundary question in 1839. He was made major-general and commander-in-chief of the army in 1841. In the Mexican War in 1847 he was in chief command at Vera Cruz, Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Churubusco, Molino del Rey, Chapultepec, and the occupation of Mexico. He was a Whig in politics and ran unsuccessfully for President in 1852. He retired from active service in 1861 and died at West Point in 1866.

SENATE.—The upper and numerically smaller branch of the U. S. Congress is the Senate. Each state is entitled to two senators who are elected by the legislature for a term of six years; but the terms are so arranged that one third of the senators go out of office every two years. The Vice-president of the U. S. is, *ex-officio*, president of the Senate. In addition to its legislative duties, the Senate tries cases of impeachment, ratifies or rejects treaties made by the President, and confirms the appointment of cabinet officers, ambassadors, justices

of the Supreme Court, and other Federal officials nominated by the President. To be eligible to the Senate, one must be at least 30 years old, 9 years a citizen of the U. S., and a resident of the state from which he is chosen.

SEWALL, ARTHUR.—Born, 1835; a shipbuilder and banker; received the Democratic nomination for Vice-president, on the ticket with William J. Bryan, at the Chicago Convention, 1896.

SEYMOUR, HORATIO.—(1778–1857.) An American statesman, born at Pompey Hill, New York. He was a lawyer by profession, and was governor of New York state (1853–55) and also from 1863 to 1865. During his term of office he vetoed a prohibition bill. The draft riots in 1863 occurred during his second term. He was the unsuccessful Democratic candidate for President against Grant in 1868.

SHAFTER, WILLIAM RUFUS.—Born at Galesburg, Mich., 1835. An officer of the U. S. Army, conspicuous in the Cuban War in 1898 as commander of the land forces.

SHAW, LESLIE M.—Secretary of the treasury under appointment of February 1, 1902. He was born in Vermont in 1848. He removed to Iowa in 1869 and graduated from Cornell in 1874, and in law in 1876. He practised in Denison and engaged in general banking business. In 1896 he devoted his entire attention to the interests of the Republican party. He was elected governor of Iowa in 1897 and re-elected in 1899. He declined a third term and was about to resume his practice when the secretaryship of the treasury was offered to him.

SICKLES, DANIEL EDGAR.—Born at New York City, 1825. A noted American general and politician. He began the practice of law in 1844. He was a Democratic congressman from New York (1857–61). He entered the Civil War, raised the Excelsior Brigade of Volunteers in New York. Was with the Army of the Potomac at Antietam and Chancellorsville. He was severely wounded at Gettysburg. He was minister to Spain (1869–73) and president of N. Y. Board of Civil Service Commissioners. He was the Democratic representative in Congress from New York (1893–95).

SIGSBEE, CHARLES DWIGHT.—(1845–.) A prominent American naval officer. He was commander of the "Maine" and was in his cabin at the time of the explosion, after he had completed his inspection of the vessel. He communicated the disaster in a full report which arrived in Washington during the night and was immediately taken to the President in his bed-chamber. In the report Capt. Sigsbee asked that the American people "suspend judgment."



SITTING BULL.—(1837-1890.) A famous chief of the Dakota Indians. Leader of the force that massacred Gen. Custer's command in 1876; killed during the Sioux outbreak in 1890.

SLAVE REPRESENTATION.—This refers only to the slave states. The Constitution directs that for purposes of representation in Congress, also for direct taxes, the population of a state should be "determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons"—namely, slaves. This basis of representation continued until the abolition of slavery.

SLIDELL, JOHN.—(1793-1877.) An American diplomat, born in New York City. He began the practice of law in New Orleans in 1819, and represented the state of Louisiana in Congress in 1842. He was made minister to Mexico in 1845 by President Polk, but returned in 1847 as that country refused to recognize him. He was United States senator (1853-61), when his state seceded, and he was Confederate minister to France. While he was on his way thither, Captain Wilkes seized him and James M. Mason, and confined them in Fort Warren, Boston. The English Government demanded and secured their release on Jan. 1, 1862. Slidell secured a loan of fifteen millions and the use of the ship "Stonewall" after his release. He lived in London, England, after the war.

SLOCUM, HENRY WARNER.—(1827-1894.) A noted American general and politician. He was born at Delphi, N. Y. In 1852, he graduated from West Point, but afterward took up the practice of law. He entered the Civil War as a colonel of volunteers. He was at Bull Run, South Mountain, Antietam, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and commanded the right wing at Gettysburg. He had command of the left wing on Sherman's march to the sea. He resumed his law practice and was Democratic member of Congress from New York (1869-73).

SMITH, CHARLES EMORY.—Journalist and statesman, was born at Mansfield, Conn., in 1842. During the Civil War he was active in organizing volunteer corps. He then became editor of the Albany "Express" (1865-70); Albany "Journal" (1870-80); and "The Press," Philadelphia, since 1880. He was U. S. minister to Russia (1890-92). President McKinley appointed him postmaster-general (1898-1902).

SMUGGLING.—The act of bringing dutiable goods from one country and landing them in another without payment of tariff charges. In the U. S. the penalties range from \$50 to \$5,000, or imprisonment for not more than two years, or both. Smuggled goods, when discovered, are usually confiscated.

SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.—The prime cause of this war was the keen sympathy felt by the American people for the Cubans as against their Spanish rulers. The conditions of the insurrection that began in Feb., 1895, were similar to those of 1870 described by Grant in a message to Congress: "The insurrection itself, although not subdued, exhibits no signs of advance, but seems to be confined to an irregular system of hostilities carried on by small and illy-armed bands of men, roaming without concentration through the woods and sparsely settled regions, attacking from ambush convoys and small bands of troops, burning plantations and the estates of those not in sympathy with their cause." The insurgents held no seaport nor any interior town of importance, nor did they have a permanent seat of government. It was therefore impossible for them to receive foreign diplomatic agents, or for the U. S. to send them such or to recognize them as belligerents. This condition was clearly recognized by Presidents Cleveland and McKinley, whatever the popular feeling of this country might be. The Spaniards made promises of reform in the government of the island, but no substantial improvement in the general situation was perceptible. Crimes multiplied, property was laid waste, and, except in some towns and cities, there was neither law nor order. In Feb., 1896, Captain-general Weyler inaugurated a policy of "concentration" so cruel that at it the whole civilized world stood aghast.

By this policy he herded the farmers in cities. They had no means of livelihood. Their farms and homes were destroyed, they were starved, ill-clothed, and ill-housed, and disease, following the ravages of war, increased the misery of the people. The story of the Cubans was popularly known in the U. S., and although the excitement ran high, the government respected the laws of neutrality and was still a "friendly nation" with Spain. Such was the condition of affairs when, on the night of Feb. 15, 1898, the U. S. battleship "Maine" lying in Havana harbor, was destroyed by the explosion of a submarine mine, and two officers and 258 men perished. The report of the committee of investigation confirmed the widespread suspicion that the explosion was from without the ship: in other words, the Spanish government was responsible for the casualty. The popular indignation against Spain was irresistible and the cry "Remember the Maine!" was heard from ocean to ocean. Congress promptly voted \$50,000,000 for defense. Apr. 6, the European powers expressed a hope that a peaceful solution might be found for the difficulties. Apr. 11, the President admitted that diplomacy had failed to accomplish its purpose and recommended armed intervention. Apr. 19, Congress declared Cuba independent of Spain and authorized forcible intermediation. This was regarded as equivalent to a declaration of



war, and diplomatic relations were at once broken off by both governments. Apr. 23, the President called for 125,000 volunteers. Apr. 25, Congress made a formal declaration of war from and including Apr. 21, the European powers having issued proclamations of neutrality. The call for volunteers was answered with great enthusiasm, as was also a second call issued May 25, more men offering themselves in both cases than could be received. Enlistments were continued for the regular army and the navy, and the latter was strengthened by the addition of over 100 vessels. Preparations for war were continued with great zeal in every department; coast defenses were strengthened and mines were laid at important and exposed points; the armies were mobilized; telegraph and telephone lines, and submarine cables, were provided without stint; Congress voted all the money asked, and the public loans were subscribed with offers of subscription far in excess of what was needed. In the meanwhile, camp equipage, arms, accouterments, hospital supplies, etc., were being manufactured with unparalleled rapidity.

The first gun of the war was actually fired on Apr. 27 by an American vessel of the squadron that was blockading Mantanzas harbor (east of Havana), when the fortifications were shelled. At the outbreak of hostilities, Commodore Dewey, having command of the Pacific squadron then lying at Hong-Kong, China, was instructed to destroy the Spanish fleet. He sailed for the Philippine Islands to meet the hostile fleet, and on the morning of May 1, he fought the battle of Manila Bay, and won a victory up to that time unparalleled in the annals of naval warfare. Early in the morning, regardless of the submarine mines with which the channel to the harbor was planted the squadron entered the bay and in the fraction of a morning destroyed the Spanish fleet of ten warships and one transport, captured the naval station and forts at Cavite, and all this without the loss of a single life, only seven Americans being wounded. This amazing result not only revealed to the European powers the efficiency of the American navy, but it increased the already intense enthusiasm of the American people. The Philippine Islands being a Spanish possession and garrisoned by Spanish soldiers, it was desirable to send there a strong land force in order to harvest the best results of Dewey's victory. Accordingly an army numbering about 15,000 men, was sent to that place with all dispatch under command of Maj.-gen. Wesley Merritt, to coöperate with the navy and to complete the victory over the Spanish army. By the last of June, Manila was besieged by land and by sea.

In the meanwhile the war was diligently prosecuted against the Spaniards in Cuba and Porto Rico, both army and navy being moved forward with all possible speed. The Spanish fortifications of Carde-

nas (Cuba), San Juan (Porto Rico), and the forts at Santiago harbor, were all shelled, but without material result. It was believed, and the belief was subsequently found to be correct, that the Spanish squadron was lying in Santiago harbor, completely concealed from observation by the hills that obstructed the view, and the mouth of the harbor was closely guarded by Commodore Schley with his flying squadron, and later by acting Rear-admiral Sampson who, in command of the Atlantic squadron, strengthened the blockade with a powerful fleet of battleships, torpedo boats, etc.

On the night of June 3, Lieut. Hobson performed a feat of personal daring that added greatly to the romance of the war. With the assistance of seven men he took a coaling vessel, the "Merrimac," to the narrow mouth of Santiago harbor, under the fierce fire of the Spanish guns from forts and batteries, and sunk it athwart the channel, with the purpose of effectually preventing the exit of vessels within the harbor. The deed was without strategic significance, because the sunken vessel failed to obstruct the channel, but it was important from the fact that it aroused great popular enthusiasm and sensibly added to the war fever which was already high. The eight men who composed the crew of the "Merrimac" were captured, and were the only prisoners captured by Spain during the war.

The first organized force of the U. S. troops that landed in Cuba was a detachment of 600 marines who, protected by the guns of the naval force, effected a landing at Guantanamo, June 10. On the 24th of the month, Maj.-gen. W. R. Shafter, with an army of more than 15,000 men, reached the neighboring district of Daiquiri, 15 miles from Santiago, and moved against the city without delay. On the 24th they encountered the enemy occupying a strong natural position upon the range of hills near Las Guasimas, where a sharp battle was fought. The Spaniards fled precipitately toward Santiago and the Americans elated by the victory, continued their advance and the same day reached a point within five miles of the city.

For three days, July 1, 2, 3, there was severe fighting at the defenses of Santiago. The Americans steadily pushed on toward the city, first capturing the outworks, then fighting successfully the battles of El Caney and San Juan, and finally occupying the strong fortifications on the top of the hill from which they had a full view of both the city and harbor. The investment was complete, and the capture of the city was only a question of time, and that necessarily brief. The Spanish troops could not possibly escape, and the only hope of escape for the fleet was in running the blockade.

On Sunday morning, July 3, at about 9:30 o'clock, the vessels of the Spanish fleet were seen coming out of the harbor. Their com-



mander, Rear-admiral Pascual Cervera, had determined to make a dash for liberty and, if possible, to gain the open sea. Upon their appearance, the U. S. vessels signaled "Enemy's ships escaping," and pursuit began instantly. Owing to the temporary absence of the commanding officer, Sampson, who was at the moment seven miles from the scene of battle, the senior officer present and actually engaged in the fight was Commodore Schley. The battle was sharp and short, and the result quite as surprising as that of the battle of Manila harbor. In two hours the entire Spanish fleet was destroyed, and among the 1,400 prisoners was the admiral. The Americans lost 2 men: 1 killed and 1 wounded, but not a vessel was lost or materially damaged. The power of Spain upon the seas was absolutely destroyed. The war was virtually at an end, for there was no possibility of Spain fighting further with reasonable hope of success. On July 17 Santiago surrendered with 22,000 soldiers, and the eastern part of Cuba came under the control of the U. S. Gen. Nelson A. Miles, with a force of 3,500 which was subsequently increased to 17,000, landed on July 25 at Guanica, Porto Rico. The Spanish were not prepared for serious resistance there, and in about three weeks the U. S. obtained possession of the entire island. It was now evident that Spain, not having attained a single military or naval success, could not hope to continue the war either on land or by sea.

On July 26 the French ambassador, M. Jules Cambon, conveyed to the administration at Washington overtures of peace in behalf of Spain. The protocol, terminating hostilities, was signed on Aug. 12. On Aug. 15, three days after the signing of the protocol, but before the news of it had reached the Philippines, the battle of Manila was fought. In this battle the land forces, in coöperation with the navy, assaulted the city, which surrendered after a slight resistance. This was the last battle of the war. The troops were promptly withdrawn from Cuba, the first detachment having returned Aug. 6; by the last of the month the bulk of the force had been withdrawn, only enough being left to police and guard the island.

On the part of the U. S. the total casualties of the war were as follows: Army, officers killed, 23; enlisted men killed, 257; officers wounded, 113; enlisted men wounded, 1,464. Navy, killed, 17; wounded, 67; died as a result of wounds, 1; invalided home, 6. Total: killed, 298; wounded, 1,644.

The treaty of peace was signed at Paris, Dec. 10, 1898, ratified by the U. S., Feb. 10, 1899, and by Spain, March 19. The terms of this treaty provided that Spain relinquish all claims to Cuba, that Porto Rico and the other West Indian islands of Spain, one island of the

Ladrones, and the entire group of the Philippines be ceded to the U. S.; and that the U. S. pay Spain the sum of \$20,000,000.

The ratifications of the two governments were exchanged in Washington Apr. 11, and on the same day President McKinley issued a proclamation setting forth these facts, and reciting the text of the treaty, making the matter thus public, to the end that the entire treaty "may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States and the citizens thereof." (See DEWEY, GEORGE.)

SPINNER, FRANCIS ELIAS — (1802-1890.) An American statesman and financier, born at Mohawk, New York. He was engaged in the confectionary business during his early life at Herkimer, N. Y. He was auditor of the port of New York (1845); Democratic congressman (1855-61); treasurer of the United States (1861-75). His characteristic signature on notes was known all over the world. His accounts were a marvel of accuracy. He died in Jacksonville, Fla.

STANFORD, LELAND.—(1824-1893.) An American philanthropist and public man, born in Watervliet, N. Y. He was admitted to the New York bar in 1849 and went at once to California. He engaged in gold mining and became promoter and president of the Central Pacific railway. He was Republican governor of California in 1861; and U. S. senator (1884-93). Out of an estimated fortune of fifty millions, he gave twenty millions to found the Leland Stanford, Jr. University at Palo Alto, in memory of his son.

STEPHENS, ALEXANDER HAMILTON.—(1812-1883.) A prominent American statesman, born in Crawfordsville, Ga. He was admitted to the bar in 1834. He was a Whig congressman (1843-59). He was at first a supporter of Douglas in his anti-slavery advocacy, and made several speeches in support of the Union up to 1860. But, when his state seceded, he joined the Confederacy and was Vice-president of the Confederate States (1861-65). He was imprisoned for five months in Fort Warren, Boston, in 1865. He was elected U. S. senator for Georgia but was refused a seat on the ground that his state had not complied with the principles of reconstruction. He was governor of the state in 1882.

STEVENSON, ADLAI EWING.—Vice-president of the United States (1893-97). He was born in Christian County, Ky., in 1835. He was admitted to the bar in Bloomington, Ill., in 1857. He was a member of Congress (1875-77); first assistant postmaster-general (1885-89). After his term of vice-presidency he was a member of the international bimetallism commission to Europe. He was the Democratic nominee for Vice-president in 1900.



STEWART, WILLIAM MORRIS.—An American lawyer and statesman, born in Lyons, N. Y., in 1827. He entered Yale, but was attracted to the California gold fields in 1850. He was admitted to the bar in 1852. In 1860 he removed to Virginia City, Nev. He was U. S. senator (1863-75); and again since 1887. His term expired in 1905. He has been an ardent Republican, but favors free-silver coinage.

STORER, BELLAMY.—An American lawyer and diplomat, born in Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1847. He graduated from Harvard (1867) and was admitted to the bar in 1869. He was a Republican member of Congress (1891-95); minister to Belgium (1897); minister to Spain (1899); and ambassador to Austria-Hungary since 1902.

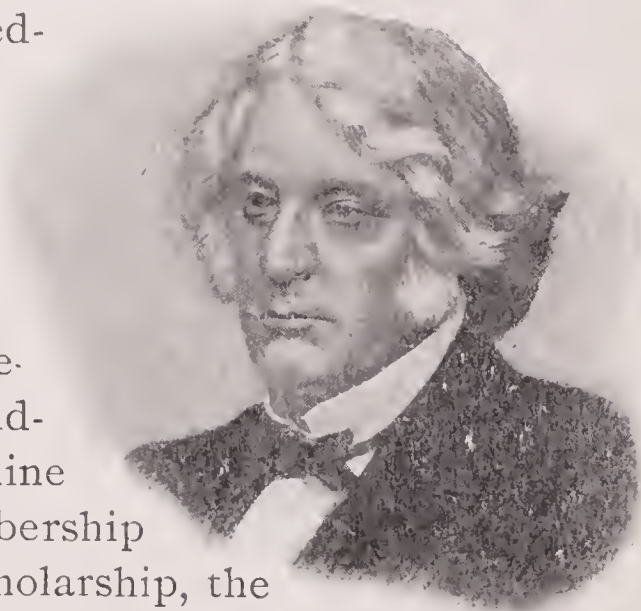
## CHARLES SUMNER

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*He had the courage of his convictions.*

SUMNER is the highest example of the scholar in politics that our history affords. He was born in Boston in the beginning of 1811, the grandson of a Revolutionary soldier who had graduated at Harvard, as subsequently did Sumner's father and himself. The father—commonly known as "Sheriff Sumner," from his almost life-long office—was a lawyer who had early taken to Federalist politics, and is described as a man of the ancient New England type for austerity, probity and solemnity, but mellowed in demeanor by his addiction to public life, and in personal temperament by a fondness for literature. It is not difficult to trace in the son the qualities of this fine old Puritan gentleman, further modified by his own time and surroundings. The son and a twin sister were the eldest of nine children, and though by family connection, by membership in a learned profession, by official station, and by scholarship, the father belonged to an aristocracy in which mere wealth had no position whatever, his income was so slender that the severest economy was needed to supply the family wants, and to meet the imperative requirements of the high office of sheriff of the county.

The young Sumner was a quiet boy, intellectually forward and fond of books. Though in manhood he grew large and strong, his habits were always sedentary, except for the long, bracing walks which were his habitual exercise in early life. In his sixteenth year he was entered at Harvard, where his tastes developed as classical, historical, literary and oratorical. Within the limits of his talents, he was an eager and devoted student, and though austere and reserved, he was not unpopular in those simple and strenuous days of college life. He graduated after four years, and then spent a year in post-graduate study. After this, finding that his college aversion to and neglect of mathematics had been at the cost of strength and provision in logical powers, he took up the distasteful subject and for several years pursued it, till he felt that he had overcome his early default. For his future profession he chose the law, and at the





autumn term of 1831, he entered the Harvard Law School, at the head of which was the illustrious Justice Story, a warm friend of his father.

In 1834 Sumner was formally admitted to the bar, and thereafter became editor of the "American Jurist," teacher in the Harvard Law School, reporter of Story's decisions on circuit, and a commissioner of the Federal courts at Boston. These appointments and employments were more important than lucrative, and he became a literary drudge of the law journals in order to live. Still with a bent toward oratory, he continued his long habit of never missing an opportunity to hear Webster, Everett or Choate. He was especially fond of the oratory of Channing, and falling under his influence he became, like his father, an opponent of slavery, though as yet but a reflective and silent one. Scholar and untiring student though he was, Sumner felt himself far too little qualified for the sphere of professional life which he had chosen, and in the winter of 1837 he sailed for Europe, to carry out a long contemplated desire to cultivate jurisprudence, literature and the fine arts in their more exalted seats. When he returned to Boston in May, 1840, he was the most accomplished man of the day, and he had won that eminence honorably, by the hardest sort of discipline — diligent endeavor and no moment wasted.

Home from Europe with the distinction gained abroad, Sumner took ostensibly to the practice of the law, but what he really did, in addition to writing on legal questions, was to get deeper and deeper into antislavery politics. In 1842, at a time of popular excitement, Sumner vindicated, under the law of nations, the right of British cruisers on the African coast to board suspected slavers flying American colors, to ascertain their true national character and the lawfulness of their commerce, and such great jurists as Kent, Story and Choate supported him. In the same year he came down heavily upon Webster — whose presidential ambition had carried him away from the "Conscience Whigs" to the "Cotton Whigs" — for protesting against the act of the British authorities at Nassau, in liberating the slaves on an American vessel that had put into that port because of a slave revolt. On Independence Day of 1845, Sumner delivered before the municipal government of Boston his still famous oration on "The True Grandeur of Nations," and in the autumn of the same year he spoke at Faneuil Hall, with notable eloquence and power, against the slaveholding project of the annexation of Texas. Nearly a year later, he made another antislavery speech, invoking Webster, by the memory of his past, to place himself at the head of the antislavery movement, and, as the foremost of Whigs, to make the Whigs

a truly national party. He sent the speech to Webster, who received it coldly.

Sumner denounced the war made upon Mexico as a national disgrace, and when, in September, 1847, the Massachusetts Whig convention voted down an anti-slavery resolution, he left the party, and, in the following year, was chairman of the campaign committee of the Free-soil party in the presidential campaign that brought in Zachary Taylor, owner of three hundred slaves, as a Whig President. In November, 1850, he made his great speech against that new fugitive slave act, devised by Clay and supported by Webster, which shook the feelings of the people of Massachusetts as they had not been shaken since the Revolution, and, Webster having destroyed himself utterly, Sumner became the greatest figure in the commonwealth. That autumn the Free-soilers had combined with the Democrats in the state election, and the coalition carried the legislature. At once there was a popular cry of Sumner for the Senate, but the unwillingness of leading Democrats to be put aside caused a three months' contest, and then Sumner got just enough Democratic votes to elect him.

In December, 1851, Sumner appeared in a Senate composed of thirty-four Democrats, twenty-three Whigs and three Free-soilers, the latter including himself. He was unusually tall; of massive figure, fine features and majestic presence, and in the prime of life. He had a rich and flowing style of expression, interspersed with copious citations from classical and foreign sources; he was distinguished by a wide European acquaintance and the highest culture, and was possessed of all the social graces. The proud Southern leaders could not look down upon him; they would not look up to him, and he settled his position with them by treating them with a courteous condescension, uncomfortably suggestive of disdain. His first important speech was in the summer of 1852, on the national character of freedom and the sectional character of slavery, in which he sharply criticized the political pretensions of slavery.

In the summer of 1854, he caused much feeling among the Southern Senators and their Northern allies by a bitter speech against the Kansas-Nebraska bill. He was at no pains to soften this feeling during the angry debates of the next two years, and on May 19, 1856, he began a speech on the Kansas question which he concluded the next day, in which, replying to frequent and passionate interruptions, he retorted with unusual personal severity upon Douglas, of Illinois, and Butler, of South Carolina. Preston S. Brooks, a nephew of Butler, was a member of the House of Representatives, and, deeply stung by the insult to his revered uncle, which Sumner



had in no wise softened in the revision of his speech for the official report, he went in search of Sumner to demand an apology and a retraction. The Senate had adjourned and the chamber was empty, except that Sumner sat writing at his desk. To a rapid and angry demand, Sumner replied briefly and scornfully, whereupon the visitor struck him on the head with a heavy walking stick. Frenzied

by this outburst of passion, and fearful, perhaps, of the personal consequences of finding himself in the grasp of the powerful man before him, the assailant repeated his blows so quickly and frequently that Sumner, unable to push back his chair and rise, at length fell insensible to the floor. At first his injuries were supposed to be mortal, but his strong constitution and frame carried him through; though he was more than three and a half years absent from the Senate, under treatment, and was never thereafter his former self. The assault served to widen and deepen the chasm between the North and the

South; but Brooks, the assailant, was personally popular with the members of the House of Representatives, some allowance was made for the provocation and excitement under which he was laboring, and, though he was censured by the House, it was impossible to get a two-thirds vote for his expulsion. In consequence of the censure, he resigned his seat, to which he was immediately reëlected. He was not a vain, violent or quarrelsome man, and loathed the popular adulation from the South as much as he resented the mobbing threats from the North. Feeling himself branded like Cain, he became reckless and despondent, and his health rapidly declined. He challenged Burlingame, a spirited representative from Massachusetts, for taunting him in the House, and a duel was arranged, to be fought in Canada. On the advice of friends, and in deference to the unanimous feeling in the South, he declined, at the last moment, to attempt the journey through "the enemy's country" to reach Canada, and before any further mortification could visit him, death came to his relief, near the end of January, 1857.

Just before the death of his assailant at Washington, Sumner was able to make a public visit to the state house at Boston, where the state and municipal authorities and the populace gathered to do him honor. As his term was soon to expire, and an indefinite sojourn in Europe under treatment would be necessary, he asked that another choice than himself be made, but this was deemed inadmissible, and for three and a half years Sumner's vacant chair in the Senate chamber remained as the "silent protest" of Massachusetts against the violence done to her representative. The chair was filled by its proper occupant at the December session of 1859, and the visible



feebleness of the once stalwart man was not conducive to good feeling. In June, 1860, Sumner again challenged the enemy by a cutting speech denouncing slavery as barbarism, but nobody on the Southern side took up the challenge.

On the reorganization of the Senate at the accession of Lincoln, the chairmanship of the committee on foreign relations went to Sumner, probably the best qualified chairman it has ever had. He took the right side at once in the "Trent affair," and when the Confederate envoys had been surrendered to the British government, he made a notable speech, asserting that the true glory of the incident rested with the United States, which had bowed to the law of civilization under circumstances of great provocation.

Late in October, 1861, Senator Edwin D. Baker, of Oregon, absent from his seat as commander of a Union brigade on the upper Potomac, was killed in an engagement which inflicted humiliation, as well as loss, on the Union side. The fault may have been Baker's own, but his sorrowing and admiring friends sought to transfer it to his next superior, General Charles P. Stone, a citizen of Massachusetts and a professional soldier, greatly esteemed by President Lincoln and Generals Scott and McClellan. After this, Stone incurred the hostility of the governor of Massachusetts by protesting against the latter's interference with the duties of a Massachusetts regiment belonging to Stone's command. The Governor applied to Sumner, and he attacked Stone in the Senate. Stone thereupon wrote Sumner a reproachful letter, which Sumner, in great heat, took to the President. Lincoln read the letter and handed it back, with the remark that it was just the kind of letter that a man who felt like writing it would be justified in writing, under the circumstances. Sumner was now offended with the President as well as with Stone, and never forgave either.

On the accession of President Grant, the influence of Sumner procured the appointment of his friend Motley, the historian, as Minister to Great Britain, but Motley was recalled the year after his appointment, for following the policy of Sumner, which was arrogant and irritating, rather than his instructions from Grant, whose policy was one of peace. Sumner also became hostile to the administration on the questions of the annexation of San Domingo and the sale of arms for French use in the war with Germany, and in the spring of 1871 he was removed from his chairmanship of the committee on foreign relations. The next year he made a speech discriminating between what he called "Grantism" and Republicanism. He also advocated the support of Greeley against the reëlection





of Grant, and replied sharply to Blaine, who had publicly called him to account. Following the defeat of Greeley, he threw the Republican camp into confusion by a resolution to omit the names of battles of the Civil War from the standards and rosters of the army, citing the example of the ancient Greek republics. The legislature of Massachusetts passed a resolution of censure upon it, but afterward repealed it. When the December session of 1873 opened, he was again upon good terms with his party, and gave himself entirely to the forwarding of his supplementary civil rights bill, in behalf of the race to which he had been faithful for more than thirty years. His civil rights bill of 1866 had been the immediate cause of the rupture between Johnson and the Republicans in Congress.

Late in life, Sumner had contracted a marriage which was unfortunate because of incompatibility. It was followed soon by a separation, and ultimately by a divorce, to give freedom to the other party, and this domestic misfortune, exposed to the world, deeply wounded his proud and reserved spirit. On March 11, 1874, he died at Washington, after a short illness. The noblest eulogy pronounced on him was by Senator Lamar, of Mississippi, originally a disciple of Calhoun. Sumner was intractable and egotistical in disposition, but very simple and kindly in manner; so that while living much to and in himself, he always had friends as well as admirers. In his early days he had defined politics as the application of moral principle to public affairs, and his own political career was one of the greatest and most consistent illustrations of the definition. In that respect he was the American Gladstone, and it was his commanding intellect and lofty character, rather than any talent for practical statesmanship, that must explain his four consecutive elections to the Senate. Equally with Webster, and for a longer period, he was the pride of Massachusetts, and while he lived he represented, in a very real sense, all that was best in that great commonwealth. Like Gladstone, again, he was so self-absorbed as never to have the least sense of humor, a defect which made intercourse with him always hazardous, when not difficult.

SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES.—Established according to the provisions of the U. S. Constitution, in 1789. First chief-justice, John Jay. The judicial power of the Supreme Court extends to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to cases concerning ambassadors, consuls, and other public officials; to controversies in which the United States is involved; to all cases arising under the Constitution of the U. S., etc. Decisions in the highest state courts

if conflicting with the Constitution, treaties, or laws of the United States, may be appealed to the Supreme Court. Present chief-justice, Melville W. Fuller. The salary of the chief-justice is \$10,500 a year. His eight associates receive \$10,000 each.

TAFT, WILLIAM H.—Born 1857. The first civil governor of the Philippines under American rule.

TELLER, HENRY MOORE.—An American statesman, born in Alleghany County, New York in 1830. He was admitted to the bar of Binghamton, N. Y., in 1856. After practising in Illinois until 1861, he removed to Colorado. He was Republican U. S. senator (1876–82). President Arthur appointed him secretary of the interior (1882–85). He has been United States senator since 1885 and his term of office expires in 1909. In 1896 he withdrew from the National Republican Convention at St. Louis as he favored bimetallism. In the succeeding campaign and again in 1900, he supported Bryan for the presidency. At his re-election to the Senate in 1897, he was returned as an Independent Republican.

TERRITORIES.—When the Revolution closed, several of the states had claims to large tracts of land adjoining their western borders. The counter claim was raised that these territories belonged to the Federal Government, since they were won by all the states in common. Between 1781 and 1802 all these tracts passed by acts of cession under the jurisdiction of the U. S. Several additions by purchase or treaty were made subsequently. The Continental Congress provided that the western territory to be ceded to the U. S. "shall be settled and formed into distinct republican states, which shall become members of the Federal Union and have the same rights of sovereignty, freedom, and independence as the other states." The Northwest Territory was organized in 1787, the Southwest in 1790. An organized territory is governed by a governor appointed for four years by the President with the confirmation of the Senate, and a legislature composed of a council and a house of representatives chosen every two years by the people. A delegate to Congress, who has a voice but not a vote in the actions of that body, is elected by the people every two years. Congress may exercise control over all territorial legislation. A territory has courts the judges of which are appointed for four years by the President and confirmed by the Senate, and over which the U. S. Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction.

"TEXAS," THE.—A fourth-rate battleship of the U. S. navy that took a prominent part in the battle of Santiago, July 3, 1898. She was launched in 1892 and has a tonnage of 6,315. Her armor is of



12 inches extreme thickness. She carries two 12-in.; six 6-in. Q. F.; and twelve 6-pdr. Q. F. guns. Her horse-power is 8,610 and her speed 17.8 knots. She is an old vessel and of little value.

THOMPSON, RICHARD WIGGINTON.—(1809-1900.) An American statesman, born in Cilpeper County, Virginia. He was admitted to the bar of Indiana in 1834. He was Republican member of Congress (1841-43) and (1847-49.) In 1877, he was secretary of the navy under President Hayes. He resigned in 1881 and became chairman of the American committee of the Panama Canal Company, and a director of the Panama Railroad Company.

THURMAN, ALLEN GRANBERY.—(1813-1895.) This noted American politician and jurist was born at Lynchburg, Va. He filled several high public offices including state congressman for Ohio (1845-47); judge of Ohio supreme court (1851); chief-justice (1854-56); unsuccessful Democratic candidate for governor of Ohio (1867); U. S. senator (1869-81); U. S. commission at the monetary conference in Paris (1881) and unsuccessful Democratic nominee for the vice-presidency in 1888. He promoted the passage of the "Thurman Act" which compelled the Pacific railroads to keep their obligations.

TILDEN, SAMUEL JONES.—(1814-1886.) A noted American statesman and lawyer. In April, 1848, he with John Van Buren issued the Barnburner's address setting forth the Free Soil sentiment. From 1836 to 1871, Tilden worked with the "Committee of Seventy" in the exposure of the Tweed Ring in New York City. It was through Tilden's efforts that Connolly was brought to terms and the committee got possession of the comptroller's office. By his exposure of the corrupt practice of the canal ring he saved over eight million dollars of the public funds. In 1874 he was elected governor of New York. In 1876 Tilden was nominated Democratic candidate for the presidency. This election was settled in favor of R. B. Hayes by the Electoral Commission (which see). A large portion of his private fortune was left to the City of New York to erect a public library. He died at Greystone, Yonkers, on August 4, 1886, at the age of 72 years.

TIMBER-CULTURE ACT.—In order to promote forestry, Congress passed an act, Mar. 3, 1873, granting to each actual settler 160 acres of treeless land, on condition that he plant and cultivate a certain number of forest trees.

TODD, MARY.—A young woman of Kentucky who became the wife of Abraham Lincoln. (See LINCOLN, ABRAHAM.)

TOOMBS, ROBERT.—(1810-1885.) An American statesman, born in Wilkes County, Georgia. He entered the practice of law, and became a Whig congressman (1845-53). He was United States senator

(1853-61) where he advocated the disunion of the nation, for which he was expelled from the Senate in March, 1861. He entered the Confederate Congress and was a prominent candidate for the Confederate presidency. He was secretary of state and brigadier-general in the Confederate army. On his return to America after an extended European tour, he refused to take the oath of allegiance. He died in Washington County, Georgia.

**TORIES.**—An English political party which arose in the 17th century. It was the successor of the Cavaliers. The followers were conservative in matters of Church and State. They took strong ground against the colonies during the American Revolution, and also against the French Revolution. Pitt, Canning, and Wellington were prominent leaders. After the passage of the Reform Bill (1832) the name was replaced by *Conservative*, though the term *Tory* is still quite commonly used.

**TOWNE, CHARLES ARNETTE.**—An American politician, born in Oakland Co., Mich., in 1858. He began the practice of law in Duluth, Minn., and was a Republican member of Congress in 1894. In 1896 he left the party on the money question and supported Bryan, for whom he delivered many addresses. In 1900, he received the nomination for Vice-president by the People's party, but withdrew and threw his support to Bryan and Stevenson.

**TRACY, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.**—An American statesman, born in Oswego, N. Y., in 1830. He entered upon the practice of law, and became district attorney. In 1862 he was appointed recruiting officer by Governor Morgan. He was in command of a regiment at the battles of the Wilderness and Spottsylvania. At the close of the war he was brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers. He was secretary of the navy under President Harrison (1889-93). After that he resumed his practice in New York City. He was counsel for the defense in the Tilton-Beecher case.

**TREASON.**—According to the Constitution, treason against the United States consists only in "levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort." The testimony of two witnesses or confession in open court is necessary for conviction—the penalty is death.

**TREASURY OFFICE OF ACCOUNTS.**—An important bureau under the treasury board as established by the Continental Congress. It was presided over by an auditor-general.

**TRUMBULL, LYMAN.**—(1814-1896.) An American lawyer and statesman, born in Colchester, Conn. He was admitted to the bar in 1837, and began practice in Illinois. He was a Democratic member of



Congress in 1854. In 1855 he was U. S. senator and served until 1873. He opposed the Douglas slavery policy and supported Lincoln in 1861. For the succeeding five years he was a Republican senator. He then supported Johnson's reconstruction policy and voted with the Democrats afterward. He resumed his law practice after his retirement.

**TURPIE, DAVID.**—A prominent Democratic leader, born in Hamilton County, Ohio, in 1829. He was admitted to the bar at Logansport, Ind., in 1849. He was United States senator (1863); speaker of Indiana legislature (1874-75); commissioner to revise laws of Indiana (1878-81); U. S. district attorney (1886); U. S. senator (1887-99).

**TWEED, WILLIAM MARCY.**—(1823-1878.) A Democratic politician; identified with the municipal government of New York City and tried (1871-73) and imprisoned for the appropriation of many millions of the city's money. He died in jail.

**UNCLE SAM.**—How the term came to be applied to the United States. The term "Uncle Sam" came into use in the War of 1812 and originated at Troy, N. Y. The government inspector there was known as Uncle Sam Wilson, and when the war opened, Elbert Anderson, a contractor in New York, bought a large quantity of provisions for the army. This was inspected by Wilson, and duly labeled E. A.—U. S., meaning Elbert Anderson, for the United States. The term U. S. for the United States was then somewhat new, and the local workmen concluded that they referred to Uncle Sam Wilson. After they discovered their mistake, they kept up the appellation as a joke. These same men soon went to war. There they repeated the joke. It got into print and went the rounds of the press. From that time on "Uncle Sam" was used facetiously for the United States, and it now, in ordinary parlance, represents the nation.

**UNITED STATES—ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY.**—The increase in area of the U. S., by war and treaty, is here indicated.

WHEN	HOW	WHENCE	WHAT	SQUARE MILES
1776 } 1783 }	By War	From Britain	The Thirteen Original States <sup>1</sup>	820,680
1803.....	" Treaty	" France	Louisiana <sup>2</sup>	899,579
1819.....	" "	" Spain	Florida <sup>3</sup>	66,900
1845.....	" Union	" Mexico	Texas <sup>4</sup>	318,000
1846.....	" Treaty	" Britain	Oregon	308,052
1846-48.....	" War	" Mexico	California and New Mexico <sup>5</sup>	522,955
1853.....	" Treaty	" "	Gadsden Purchase <sup>6</sup>	45,535
1867.....	" "	" Russia	Alaska <sup>7</sup>	590,884
1898.....	" Annexation	A Republic	Hawaiian Islands <sup>8</sup>	6,449

<sup>1</sup> Estimated cost of War of Independence \$168,000,000; <sup>2</sup> Purchase Price \$15,000,000; <sup>3</sup> Purchase Price \$3,000,000; <sup>4</sup> Debt of Texas on Admission to the Union \$7,500,000; <sup>5</sup> Estimated cost of the Mexican War \$15,000,000; <sup>6</sup> Cost \$10,000,000; <sup>7</sup> Cost \$7,200,000; <sup>8</sup> The U. S. assumed the debt of Hawaii not to exceed \$4,000,000.

UNITED STATES.—Gross area at each census, from 1790 to 1900.

CENSUS YEARS.	Gross area in square miles.	CENSUS YEARS.	Gross area in square miles.
1900.....	3,025,600	1840.....	2,059,043
1890.....	3,025,600	1830.....	2,059,043
1880.....	3,025,600	1820.....	2,059,043
1870.....	3,025,600	1810.....	1,999,775
1860.....	3,025,600	1800.....	827,844
1850.....	2,980,959	1790.....	827,844

The area in square miles, including land and water surface, of the several states and territories at the census of 1900 is presented in the following table:

AREA OF THE UNITED STATES IN SQUARE MILES, BY STATES AND TERRITORIES: 1900.

STATES AND TERRITORIES	Gross area.	Water surface.	Land surface.
Total.....	3,622,933	*55,562	*2,970,038
Alabama.....	52,250	710	51,540
Alaska.....	590,884	.....	.....
Arizona.....	113,020	100	112,920
Arkansas.....	53,850	805	53,045
California.....	158,360	2,380	155,980
Colorado.....	103,925	280	103,645
Connecticut.....	4,990	145	4,845
Delaware.....	2,050	90	1,960
District of Columbia.....	70	10	60
Florida.....	58,680	4,440	54,240
Georgia.....	59,475	495	58,980
Hawaii.....	6,449	.....	.....
Idaho.....	84,800	510	84,290
Illinois.....	56,650	650	56,000
Indiana.....	36,350	440	35,910
Indian Territory.....	31,400	400	31,000
Iowa.....	56,025	550	55,475
Kansas.....	82,080	380	81,700
Kentucky.....	40,400	400	40,000
Louisiana.....	48,720	3,300	45,420
Maine.....	33,040	3,145	29,895
Maryland.....	12,210	2,350	9,860
Massachusetts.....	8,315	275	8,040
Michigan.....	58,915	1,485	57,430
Minnesota.....	83,365	4,160	79,205
Mississippi.....	46,810	470	46,340
Missouri.....	69,415	680	68,735
Montana.....	146,080	770	145,310
Nebraska.....	77,510	670	76,840
Nevada.....	110,700	960	109,740
New Hampshire.....	9,305	300	9,005
New Jersey.....	7,815	290	7,525
New Mexico.....	122,580	120	122,460
New York.....	49,170	1,550	47,620
North Carolina.....	52,250	3,670	48,580
North Dakota.....	70,795	600	70,195
Ohio.....	41,060	300	40,760
Oklahoma.....	39,030	200	38,830
Oregon.....	96,030	1,470	94,560
Pennsylvania.....	45,215	230	44,985
Rhode Island.....	1,250	197	1,053
South Carolina.....	30,570	400	30,170
South Dakota.....	77,650	800	76,850
Tennessee.....	42,050	300	41,750
Texas.....	265,780	3,490	262,290
Utah.....	84,970	2,780	82,190
Vermont.....	9,565	430	9,135
Virginia.....	42,450	2,325	40,125
Washington.....	69,180	2,300	66,880
West Virginia.....	24,780	135	24,645
Wisconsin.....	56,040	1,590	54,450
Wyoming.....	97,890	315	97,575
Delaware Bay.....	620	620	.....
Raritan Bay and Lower New York Bay.....	100	100	.....

\*Exclusive of Alaska and Hawaii.



UNITED STATES.—Population of states and territories, arranged geographically: 1890 and 1900.

STATES AND TERRITORIES	1900	1890		
		Total.	Included in general enumeration.	Speci-ally enumerated.
The United States .....	*76,303,387	63,069,756	62,622,250	447,506
North Atlantic division...	21,046,695	17,406,969	17,401,545	5,424
Maine .....	694,466	661,086	661,086	
New Hampshire .....	411,588	376,530	376,530	
Vermont .....	343,641	332,422	332,422	
Massachusetts .....	2,805,346	2,238,947	2,238,943	4
Rhode Island .....	428,556	345,506	345,506	
Connecticut .....	908,420	746,258	746,258	
New York .....	7,268,894	6,003,174	5,997,853	5,321
New Jersey .....	1,883,669	1,444,933	1,444,933	
Pennsylvania .....	6,302,115	5,258,113	5,258,014	99
South Atlantic division...	10,443,480	8,857,922	8,857,920	2
Delaware .....	184,735	168,493	168,493	
Maryland .....	1,188,044	1,042,390	1,042,390	
District of Columbia...	278,718	230,392	230,392	
Virginia .....	1,854,184	1,655,980	1,655,980	
West Virginia .....	958,800	762,794	762,794	
North Carolina .....	1,893,810	1,617,949	1,617,947	2
South Carolina .....	1,340,316	1,151,149	1,151,149	
Georgia .....	2,216,331	1,837,353	1,837,353	
Florida .....	528,542	391,422	391,422	
North Central division...	26,333,004	22,410,417	22,362,279	48,138
Ohio .....	4,157,545	3,672,329	3,672,316	13
Indiana .....	2,516,462	2,192,404	2,192,404	
Illinois .....	4,821,550	3,826,352	3,826,351	1
Michigan .....	2,420,982	2,093,890	2,093,889	1
Wisconsin .....	2,069,042	1,693,330	1,686,880	6,450
Minnesota .....	1,751,394	1,310,283	1,301,826	8,457
Iowa .....	2,231,853	1,911,297	1,911,896	401
Missouri .....	3,106,665	2,679,185	2,679,184	1
North Dakota .....	319,146	190,983	182,719	8,264
South Dakota .....	401,570	348,600	328,808	19,792
Nebraska .....	1,066,300	1,062,656	1,058,910	3,746
Kansas .....	1,470,495	1,428,108	1,427,096	1,012
South Central division...	14,080,047	11,170,137	10,972,893	197,244
Kentucky .....	2,147,174	1,858,635	1,858,635	
Tennessee .....	2,020,616	1,767,518	1,767,518	
Alabama .....	1,828,697	1,513,401	1,513,017	384
Mississippi .....	1,551,270	1,289,600	1,289,600	
Louisiana .....	1,381,625	1,118,588	1,118,587	1
Texas .....	3,048,710	2,235,527	2,235,523	4
Oklahoma .....	398,331	78,475	61,834	16,641
Arkansas .....	1,311,564	1,128,211	1,128,179	32
Indian Territory .....	392,060	180,182		180,182
Western division .....	4,091,349	3,102,269	3,027,613	74,656
Montana .....	243,329	142,924	132,159	10,765
Wyoming .....	92,531	62,555	60,705	1,850
Colorado .....	539,700	413,249	412,198	1,051
New Mexico .....	195,310	160,282	153,593	6,689
Arizona .....	122,931	88,243	59,620	28,623
Utah .....	276,749	210,779	207,905	2,874
Nevada .....	42,335	47,355	45,761	1,594
Idaho .....	161,772	88,548	84,385	4,163
Washington .....	518,103	357,232	349,390	7,842
Oregon .....	413,536	317,704	313,767	3,937
California .....	1,485,053	1,213,398	1,208,130	5,268
Alaska .....	63,592	32,052		32,052
Hawaii .....	154,001	89,990		89,990

\*Includes 91,219 persons in the military and naval service of the United States (including civilian employees, etc.) stationed abroad, not credited to any state or territory.

UNITED STATES.—Increase of the population at each census from 1790 to 1900.

CENSUS YEARS.	Popnlation, excluding Alaska, Ha- waii, Indian Territory, Indian reser- vations, etc.	INCREASE.	
		Number.	Per cent.
1900.....	* 75,559,258	12,937,008	20.7
1890.....	62,622,250	12,466,467	24.9
1880.....	50,155,783	11,597,412	30.1
1870.....	38,558,371	7,115,050	22.6
1860.....	31,443,321	8,251,445	35.6
1850.....	23,191,876	6,122,423	35.9
1840.....	17,069,453	4,203,433	32.7
1830.....	12,866,020	3,227,567	33.5
1820.....	9,638,453	2,398,572	33.1
1810.....	7,239,881	1,931,398	36.4
1800.....	5,308,483	1,379,269	35.1
1790.....	3,929,214	.....	.....

\* It will be noted this enumeration in 1900 is *exclusive* of Alaska, of Hawaii, of the Indian Territory, of the Indian reservations, and of the military, naval corps (including civilian employees, etc.) stationed abroad, and not credited to any state or territory. Inclusive of all, the entire population of the United States in 1900 was, as per appended table, 76,303,387. The total population in the 45 states was (in 1900) 74,607,225; in the 7 territories (1900) it was 1,604,943; U. S. citizens, etc., stationed abroad, 91,219.

The center of the area of the United States, excluding Alaska and Hawaii and other recent accessions, is in northern Kansas, in approximate latitude 39° 55', and approximate longitude 98° 50'. The center of population is, therefore, about three-fourths of a degree south and more than thirteen degrees east of the center of area.

POSITION OF THE CENTER OF POPULATION: 1790 to 1900.

CENSUS YEARS.	North latitude.	West longitude.	Approximate location by impor- tant towns.	West- ward move- ment in miles during preced- ing decade.
1790 ...	39° 16.5'	76° 11.2'	23 miles east of Baltimore, Md....	.....
1800....	39 16.1	76 56.5	18 miles west of Baltimore, Md...	41
1810....	39 11.5	77 37.2	40 miles northwest by west of Washington, D. C.	36
1820....	39 5.7	78 33.0	16 miles north of Woodstock, Va..	50
1830...	38 57.9	79 16.9	19 miles west-southwest of Moore- field, in the present state of West Virginia.	39
1840....	39 2.0	80 18.0	16 miles south of Clarksburg, in the present state of West Vir- ginia.	55
1850....	38 59.0	81 19.0	23 miles southeast of Parkers- burg, in the present state of West Virginia.	55
1860....	39 0.4	82 48.8	20 miles south of Chillicothe, Ohio.	81
1870....	39 12.0	83 35.7	48 miles east by north of Cincin- nati, Ohio.	42
1880....	39 4.1	84 39.7	8 miles west by south of Cincin- nati, Ohio.	58
1890....	39 11.9	85 32.9	20 miles east of Columbus, Ind....	48
1900....	39 9.5	85 48.9	6 miles southeast of Columbus, Ind.	14



United States — Number of Representatives as Apportioned on the Enumeration of the Several Censuses.

MEMBERSHIP AT CLOSE OF SESSION BEFORE NEW ACT TAKES EFFECT.			
Census.	Assigned after apportionment.	Number.	Date ending —
Prior to 1790.....	.....	65	.....
First Census.....	1	106	March 2, 1793
Second Census.....	1	142	March 3, 1806
Third Census.....	12	193	March 3, 1813
Fourth Census.....	.....	213	March 3, 1823
Fifth Census.....	2	242	March 3, 1833
Sixth Census.....	9	232	March 3, 1843
Seventh Census.....	4	237	March 3, 1853
Eighth Census.....	2	243	March 3, 1863
Ninth Census.....	10	293	March 3, 1873
Tenth Census.....	7	332	March 3, 1883
Eleventh Census.....	1	357	March 3, 1893
Twelfth Census.....	.....	.....	.....

The apportionment of representatives, based upon the enumeration at the Twelfth Census, as provided by the act of Congress approved January 16, 1901, is shown by states in the following table:—

Apportionment of Representatives under the Twelfth Census, by States.

STATES.	Member-ship prior to apportionment.	Member-ship after apportionment.	Gain.	STATES.	Member-ship prior to apportionment.	Member-ship after apportionment.	Gain.
Total .....	357	386	29	Montana .....	1	1	.....
Alabama.....	.....	.....	.....	Nebraska.....	6	6	.....
Arkansas.....	.....	.....	.....	Nevada.....	1	1	.....
California.....	6	9	3	New Hampshire.....	2	2	.....
Colorado.....	7	7	.....	New Jersey.....	8	10	2
Connecticut.....	2	3	1	New York.....	34	37	3
Delaware.....	4	5	1	North Carolina.....	9	10	1
Florida.....	1	1	.....	North Dakota.....	1	2	1
Georgia.....	2	3	1	Ohio.....	21	21	.....
Idaho.....	11	11	.....	Oregon.....	2	2	.....
Illinois.....	1	1	.....	Pennsylvania.....	30	32	2
Indiana.....	22	25	3	Rhode Island.....	2	2	.....
Iowa.....	13	13	.....	South Carolina.....	7	7	.....
Kansas.....	11	11	.....	South Dakota.....	2	2	.....
Kentucky.....	8	8	.....	Tennessee.....	10	10	.....
Louisiana.....	11	11	.....	Texas.....	13	16	3
Maine.....	6	7	1	Utah.....	1	1	.....
Maryland.....	4	4	.....	Vermont.....	2	2	.....
Massachusetts.....	6	6	.....	Virginia.....	10	10	.....
Michigan.....	13	14	1	Washington.....	2	3	1
Minnesota.....	12	12	.....	West Virginia.....	4	5	1
Mississippi.....	7	9	2	Wisconsin.....	10	11	1
Missouri.....	7	8	1	Wyoming.....	1	1	.....
	15	16	1				

**UNITED STATES, Departments of.—**

The executive branches of the Government of the U. S. are eight in number. Each head of a department of state, known as secretary, or by other official title, is a member of the President's Cabinet or body of advisers, and each receives a salary of \$8,000 per annum.

The following are the eight branches, with a brief résumé of the work each has to perform, under its official head: the state department ranks first among Cabinet offices, then follow in order the Treasury, War, Navy, and Post Office Departments, the Department of the Interior, and the Departments of Justice and of Agriculture.

**THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE.**—Has charge of and exercises supervision over all the business and other relations of the United States with foreign nations. Besides the secretary in charge of the department, there are three assistant secretaries, seven heads of bureaus—the diplomatic and consular bureaus, bureaus of accounts, statistics, etc.—together with a solicitor and chief clerk. The diplomatic bureau has charge of the personnel of the several classes of ministers sent to foreign courts to represent the U. S. These are graded as ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary; envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary; ministers resident, secretaries of embassies and legations, consuls-general and the various officers in the U. S. Consular service. Those of the first rank of diplomats are accredited to the chief countries, such as France, Germany, Russia, Great Britain, Mexico, and Italy, each ambassador being given a yearly salary of \$17,500, with the exception of Mexico, the representative to which republic has only \$12,000 per annum. Besides the various classes of ministers who represent the United States abroad, the Federal Government maintains a large corps of consuls resident in the chief foreign cities whose duties are to see to the interests of Americans, residents or travelers, seamen, and other citizens of this country doing business or temporarily residing abroad.

**TREASURY DEPARTMENT.**—This important branch of the Federal Government has for its management, besides the chief secretary, three assistant secretaries, a number of division heads, comptrollers, registrars, superintendents, solicitors, and auditors. Their duties are to superintend the collection of the national revenue, to keep track of the public debt, have an oversight of the mint and the coinage of the country, report upon the soundness of the national banks, and see to the affairs of the internal revenue. It also has charge of the issue of grants, warrants, etc., of money used in the appropriations of Congress; keeps all the accounts; has charge of the coast surveys, of the life-saving department and its appliances for the saving of life and prop-



erty, on the sea or lake coasts, the inspection of steamships, lighthouses and the construction, maintenance, and repair, of all the public buildings. The director of the mint has charge of the government mints and assay offices, while the chief of the bureau of engraving and printing has the oversight of the issue of all U. S. bonds, bank notes, etc.

STATISTICS, BUREAU OF.—This branch of the Treasury Department was established in 1866; its business is to gather and publish statistics of the foreign commerce of the United States, immigration, etc.

THE WAR AND THE NAVY DEPARTMENTS.—The U. S. Army is directly under the control of the commander-in-chief, the senior major or lieutenant-general, though officially the President is the commander-in-chief. He, however, never acts in that capacity, but makes all his communications to it through the secretary of war. The latter's duties are, besides being this medium of communication, to report from time to time on the state of the army and its expenditures. Under him are an adjutant-general, a commissary-general, a surgeon-general, a judge-advocate-general, an inspector-general, a quartermaster-general, a paymaster-general, besides chiefs of engineers, of ordnance, and of records, and pensions, and a chief signal officer. The duties of these several heads are to see to the efficiency of all branches of the service, to matters appertaining to recruiting and mustering of men, to the state of the arms and equipments, the drill and discipline of the army, besides the duty of paying, clothing, and feeding it. The ordnance and engineer departments of both the army and the navy have the oversight of the efficiency of the small and large gun equipment, and of the infantry, cavalry, and the engineers and artillery, and sees to the improvements from time to time effected in the weapons, missiles, and explosives, used by the armies of the world.

NAVY DEPARTMENT.—One of the eight executive departments of the National Government. It was created in 1798. It is officially designated the Department of the Navy and its head is a civil officer known as the secretary of the navy. He is appointed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate, and receives a salary of \$8,000 per annum. Under the Constitution, the President is commander-in-chief of the army and navy, but the secretary of each department is his representative and the acts of the secretary are regarded as having the full force and effect of presidential authority. Prior to the establishment of the Department of the Navy, the administration of naval affairs was intrusted to committees, boards, and agents, appointed under various acts of the Continental and Federal Congresses. In 1789 all matters relating to the navy were placed under the jurisdiction of the War Department, where they remained until by the act

of Apr. 30, 1798, the separate department was organized and the office of secretary of the navy was created. It is the duty of the secretary to execute such orders as he shall receive from the President, relative to the procurement of naval stores and materials, the construction, armament, and equipment of vessels of war, and the direction of their movements. Subsequent acts have provided methods of discharging the ministerial duties of the department. June 8, 1880, an act was passed authorizing the appointment of a judge-advocate-general. He has special charge of all matter relating to court-martial, and is in a great measure the law officer of the department. By an act of Congress in 1890 the office of assistant secretary was revived, having been abolished at a previous time. He is, under the revised statutes acting secretary of the navy during the absence or incapacity of his superior. The hydrographic office was established in 1862 and added as a bureau to the Department of the Navy.

WEATHER BUREAU.—An appropriation for the establishment of a permanent weather bureau was made by Congress in 1870. Until 1891 the Bureau was included in the War Department; was then transferred to the Agricultural Department. The duties of the Weather Bureau comprise the forecasting of changes in the weather, and the publication of such information as is of general interest. The percentage of correct forecasts is 4 out of 5, and the saving to the country's interests incalculable.

THE POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT.—Established permanently in 1794, has for the oversight of its important and useful affairs and its vast number of post offices throughout the country, a postmaster-general with four chief assistants, a chief clerk, and superintendents of the inland, the foreign, and the railway mail service, of the money-order and dead-letter offices, and a chief inspector. It is the duty of one or other of these officials, besides superintending the general mail service of the nation, to see to the manufacture and distribution of postage stamps, cards, and newspaper wrappers, to making contracts for the carrying of the mails, the furnishing of mail-bags, locks, etc., to the appointment of all city and country post offices, and the location of new offices, to the investigation of losses by mail and the recovery of letters misdirected or gone astray, with charge of the money-order system, etc. The magnitude of the work of this department may be realized when it is stated that there are close upon 50,000 postmasters in the United States, and about 75,000 clerks and assistants.

INTERIOR, DEPARTMENT OF.—One of the executive departments of the U. S. Government. It was created by act of Congress, approved Mar. 3, 1849, and in the original law was called the Home Depart-



ment. Its head is a secretary of the interior, who is appointed by the President, and has a seat in the Cabinet. The department has charge of all public business relating to pensions, patents, public lands, Indians, railroads, education, national parks, geological survey, the census, certain public documents, judicial accounts, mines and mining, etc. Besides the chief secretary and two assistant secretaries, there are commissioners of the Land Office, of Indian affairs, of railroads, surveys, education, patents, and pensioners and pension agencies.

INDIAN AFFAIRS, BUREAU OF.—A bureau of the Dept. of the Interior. Previous to 1832 all business relating to the Indians had been transacted by the clerks of the War Dept. By this time, however, the business relations between the Government and the Indians had grown to such proportions that it became necessary to establish a Bureau of Indian Affairs. Accordingly, Congress authorized the President to appoint a commissioner, who should have general superintendence, under the secretary of war, of all Indian affairs. The first commissioner was appointed July 9, 1832. In 1849 the Dept. of the Interior was created, and the Bureau of Indian Affairs was transferred thereto.

GENERAL LAND OFFICE.—A bureau of the Interior Department charged with the surveying and disposal of the public lands of the U. S. Until 1812 the secretary of the treasury acted as agent for the sale of public lands. After the office of commissioner of the General Land Office was created, the Land Office remained a bureau of the Treasury Department until the creation of the Interior Department, in 1849, when it was attached to that Department.

EDUCATION, BUREAU OF.—An office established by the Government in 1867 to collect statistics showing the condition and progress of education throughout the country, and to publish such information as would benefit the cause of education. It was made a bureau of the Interior Department at Washington in 1868.

THE DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE.—Has charge of the law business of the country, including the conducting of suits on behalf of the United States, the oversight of the U. S. attorneys, marshals and other legal officials. Its chief head is the attorney-general, who has under him a solicitor-general and half a dozen assistant attorney-generals, a solicitor in charge of the business of the state, Treasury and Internal Revenue Departments, and an attorney for pardons. In 1789 Congress created the office of attorney-general, and Edmund Randolph was appointed to fill it. It was not till 1858 that it was found necessary to appoint an assistant. All U. S. district attorneys and marshals were placed under the supervision of the

attorney-general in 1861. Second and third assistants were attached to the office in 1868 and 1871 respectively. June 22, 1870, the Department of Justice was created. (See also ATTORNEY-GENERAL.)

LABOR, DEPARTMENT OF.—The profound study of the labor question is strictly modern. More consideration has been given to it, within the last third of a century, than during any previous period in the world's history. It has awakened greater interest among the masses in the U. S. than in any other country in the world, while in England, France, and Germany it is fast becoming a question of vital political and social importance. By the act of Congress passed June 13, 1888, the Department of Labor was created, to take the place of the Bureau of Labor, which had been established in 1884. The head of this department is called the commissioner of labor, and it is his duty to collect and diffuse among the people information pertaining to questions affecting labor. One of the principal matters on which he is called to report is the topic of wages. He is also expected to consider the effect of customs laws upon the currency and the agricultural interests of the U. S. On account of the increasing number and diversity of industrial interests, the annual reports of this department are among the most closely studied of any issue of the Government. In response to demands of working people in various parts of the country, almost every state in the Union has established bureaus of labor statistics. On February 18, 1903, the Department of Labor was amalgamated with that of Commerce and Hon. George B. Cortelyou was made secretary.

AGRICULTURE, DEPARTMENT OF.—Established as a bureau by act of Congress, May 15, 1862; made a department of the government by act of Congress, Feb. 11, 1889, when its executive head was given a seat in the Cabinet. The first agricultural experiment station was established at Middletown, Conn., in 1875. There are now more than 50 fully equipped experiment stations distributed over the country, and over 400 specialists are engaged in conducting scientific investigations in the methods for obtaining the best yield of the fruits of the soil. Washington, in his annual message in 1796, said, "with reference either to individual or national welfare, agriculture is of primary importance," and urged the establishment of such a bureau. His sentiments were repeated and enlarged upon by nearly all of his successors. Congress, by the Morrill act of July 2, 1862, provided for an apportionment of public land to each state to found colleges of agriculture and the mechanical arts. More than 40 of these institutions have resulted, and in 1890 Federal aid was further increased. In 1891 the Weather Bureau was transferred from the War Department



to the Department of Agriculture. It has charge of the weather observatories, the experimental stations, where new plants and their modifications are propagated, the distribution of seeds and plants, the collection of statistics with regard to soil and climatic conditions, together with the study of animal diseases, insect pests, etc.

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. VENEZUELA MESSAGE.—A message to Congress by President Cleveland that nearly brought on war with Great Britain. (See CLEVELAND, GROVER, 69.)

VEST, GEORGE GRAHAM.—A prominent American Democratic statesman, born in Frankfort, Ky., in 1830. After graduating in law from Lexington, he removed to Missouri in 1853 and practised at Sedalia. He was for two years a representative in the Confederate congress, and one year in the Confederate senate. He was a U. S. senator from 1879 to 1903, when he was succeeded by Senator Stone.

VICE-ADMIRAL.—This, an honorary rank, was created Dec. 21, 1864. It was then the highest grade in the U. S. navy, and David G. Farragut was the first officer to receive the title. July 25, 1866, Congress created the rank of admiral, to which Farragut was elevated, David D. Porter becoming vice-admiral. When Farragut died, in 1870, Porter was advanced to the grade of admiral, and Rear-admiral Stephen C. Rowan became vice-admiral. At the latter's death in 1890, the grade of vice-admiral was abolished.

VILAS, WILLIAM FREEMAN.—An American statesman, born in Chelsea, Vermont, in 1840. In 1851 his family removed to Wisconsin. He was admitted to the bar in 1861. He at once entered the Union army. In 1885 President Cleveland appointed him postmaster-general, and, later, secretary of the interior. He was U. S. senator (1891-97). He joined the National (gold standard) Democrats in 1896. He was chairman of Resolutions at the Indianapolis Democratic Convention (1896).

"VIZCAYA," THE.—One of the vessels of the Spanish fleet that was destroyed in the battle of Santiago, July 3, 1898. She was a fine armored cruiser of 7,000 tons.

WADE, DECIUS S.—An American jurist, born in Andover, Ohio, in 1836. He was admitted to the bar in 1857. He entered the Union army in 1861. In 1869 he became state senator. He was appointed the first chief-justice of Montana in 1871, and held that office until 1887, when he undertook to revise the laws of Montana.

WAINWRIGHT, RICHARD.—Born 1849. An American naval officer. He was executive officer on the "Maine" at the time of her destruc-

tion in Havana Harbor, Feb. 15, 1898. Distinguished himself during the Spanish War by his services as lieutenant-commander of the "Gloucester."

WAITE, MORRISON REMICH.—(1816-1888.) An American lawyer and statesman, born in Lyme, Conn. He graduated from Yale in 1837, and was admitted to the bar in 1839. He began the practice of law in Maumie City, Ohio. He was United States counsel in the Alabama case at Geneva in 1871. He was chief-justice of the United States Supreme Court from 1874 to 1888. He was an LL.D. of Yale (1872); Kenyon (1874); and the University of Ohio (1879).

WALKER, ROBERT JOHN.—(1801-1869.) An American statesman, born in Northumberland. Pa. He was admitted to the bar in 1821, and began his practice in Natchez, Miss. He was United States senator (1836-45). In the latter year President Polk made him secretary of the treasury. He prepared the Walker tariff bill of 1846, Mexican tariff and several loan bills. He was made governor of the territory of Kansas by President Buchanan in 1857. In 1863 he was financial agent of the United States, and floated a loan of two hundred and fifty millions of dollars of 5-20 U. S. bonds. He practised law in Washington, D. C., during the latter years of his life.

WASHBURN, ELIHU BENJAMIN.—(1819-1887.) An American statesman, born in Livermore, Maine. He began life as a printer, but graduated in law from Harvard and was admitted to the bar in 1840. He began to practice in Galena, Illinois. He was in Congress from 1852 until 1869, and this long service gave him the name of "The Father of the House." He was also called "The Watch-dog of the Treasury," because he was so careful in watching all bills requiring the expenditure of money. He steadfastly opposed all bills granting subsidies to railroads, or private lands, and the measures making government's claims on the Union Pacific second to private claims. He was made secretary of state by President Grant in 1869. He resigned to become minister to France. As such he was at Paris during the Franco-Prussian War and became very popular by looking after the interests of those who could not leave the city. Emperor William I. of Germany tried to acknowledge these services by awarding him the Order of the Red Eagle but Washburn refused it on constitutional grounds.

WASHBURN, WILLIAM DREW.—An American statesman, born in Livermore, Maine, in 1831. He is a brother of Elihu Benjamin Washburn. He graduated from Bowdoin College in 1854, and began the practice of law in Minneapolis, Minn., in 1857. President Lincoln appointed



him surveyor-general of Minnesota in 1861. He was Republican congressman (1879-85); and U. S. senator (1889-95). He is actively engaged in flour-milling enterprises and has been prominent in railroad projection.

WATSON, THOMAS EDWARD.—An American statesman, born in Columbia County, Ga., in 1856. He was admitted to the bar in 1875. He was Populist member of Congress (1891-93). He secured the first appropriation ever made for rural free delivery. In 1896 he was nominated for Vice-president by the Populist Convention at St. Louis, and in the succeeding election secured 27 electoral votes. He has conducted a Populist paper for some time.

WEAVER, JAMES B.—A leading American public man, born in Dayton, Ohio, in 1833. He graduated in law from the Ohio University, Cincinnati, O., 1854. He joined the Union army and rose to the rank of brevet brigadier-general (1865). He edited the "Iowa Tribune," Des Moines, after the war. He was a member of Congress (1878) elected as a Greenback. In 1880 he was the Greenback nominee for President and received 308,578 votes. He was again in Congress (1885-89). He was the People's party candidate for President in 1892 when he received 22 electoral votes.

WELLES, GIDEON.—(1802-1878.) An American statesman, born in Glastonbury, Conn. In 1826, he was editor of the Hartford "Times," the leading Democratic paper in Connecticut. He brought about the abolition of imprisonment for debt in the state. He was appointed chief in the Navy Department by President Polk (1846-49). He was foremost in supporting the new Republican party. From 1861 to 1869, he was secretary of the navy under Lincoln and Johnson.

WEYLER, DON VALERIANO Y NICOLAU (Marquis of Teneriffe).—A noted Spanish general who took an active part in the foreign wars of Spain. He was in Cuba during two years of the insurrection of 1868-78. He was recalled on charges of extreme cruelty. He was sent out again in 1896 as captain-general of the Spanish forces, but was recalled again in 1897, being succeeded by Blanco. He was born about 1836.

WHEELER, JOSEPH.—Born 1836. An American general and politician; prominent in the recent war in Cuba.

WHEELER, WILLIAM ALMON.—(1819-1887.) An American statesman, born in Malone, N. Y. He began the practice of law and was U. S. district attorney in New York (1845-49). He served in the New York state senate (1858-59); Congress, as a Republican (1860); and again (1866-77). In 1874 he wrote the Louisiana compromise, and in

1876 was elected Republican Vice-president with R. B. Hayes. He retired from public life in 1881.

WHISKY RING.—A famous conspiracy of distillers and government officials (1872), to defraud the government of internal revenue taxes. The headquarters of the conspirators was at St. Louis. In less than a year the government had been defrauded of \$1,650,000. Having secured sufficient evidence against those implicated the government seized \$3,500,000 worth of property and procured indictments against 238 persons.

WHITE, ANDREW DICKINSON.—An American diplomatist, born in Homer, N. Y., in 1832. He graduated from Yale in 1853. He was president of Cornell University (1867–85). When he resigned he presented his very valuable library of over 30,000 volumes to the institution. President Grant made him a commissioner to Santo Domingo (1871); President Hayes appointed him minister to Germany (1879–81). President Cleveland appointed him on the Venezuelan boundary line commission (1896); and President McKinley appointed him ambassador to Germany (1897). He returned from the last office in 1902. He served on the Peace Commission at the Hague (1899). He is a regent of the Smithsonian Institution, and a member of the Legion of Honor of France.

WHITE, EDWARD DOUGLASS.—Associate justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, under commission dated Feb. 19, 1894. He was born in Lafourche, La., in 1845. He graduated from Georgetown (D. C.) University. He served in the Confederate army during the Civil War. He began the practice of law in Louisiana in 1868. He was a Democratic U. S. senator in 1891.

WILLIAMS, GEORGE HENRY.—An American politician and jurist, was born in New York state in 1823. He was a member of the joint high commission which negotiated the Washington treaty in 1871. President Grant nominated him chief-justice of the Supreme Court in 1873, but his nomination was not confirmed. He was Republican U. S. senator from Oregon (1865–71).

WINDOM, WILLIAM.—(1827–1891.) An American statesman, born in Waterford, Ohio. He was admitted to the bar in 1850. He was member of Congress for Minnesota (1859–69); and U. S. senator (1870–81). President Garfield made him secretary of the treasury (1881), but he resigned on Garfield's death. He was again U. S. senator (1881–83). President Harrison appointed him secretary of the treasury (1889), and he died in office.



WILSON, HENRY.—(1812-1875.) An American statesman, born in Farmington, N. H. His name was originally Jeremiah J. Colbath which he changed in 1833. In 1840 he spoke in favor of Harrison for the presidency. He was a Whig representative of Massachusetts in the state legislature, but joined the Free Soilers. He was their unsuccessful candidate for governor in 1853. He was elected United States senator in 1855 as a Union candidate. On the formation of the Republican party he joined its ranks, and vehemently opposed slavery. In 1872 he was nominated Republican candidate for the vice-presidency and was elected with General Grant. He died in office.

WILSON, JAMES.—Secretary of agriculture, under appointment dated March 5, 1897. He was born in Ayrshire, Scotland, in 1835. He came to the United States in 1852, and settled in Connecticut; thence he went to Tama County, Iowa. He was a member of the state legislature for several terms and speaker for one term. He was in Congress for several years after 1872. He was director and professor in the Iowa Agricultural College at Ames for six years.

WILSON, WILLIAM LYNE.—(1843-1900.) An American statesman, born in Jefferson County, Virginia. He graduated from the University of Virginia, served in the Confederate army, and then took a professorship in Columbian University. He later took up the practice of law in Charleston, W. Va. He was elected to Congress as a Democrat for six consecutive terms, beginning 1882. He was leader of the Democratic majority in the 53d Congress, and was chairman of the ways and means committee. He introduced the Wilson tariff bill. On his defeat in 1894, President Cleveland appointed him post-master-general. He was a regent of the Smithsonian Institution (1883-87).

WINTHROP, ROBERT CHARLES.—(1809-1894.) An American statesman and orator. He was born in Boston, Mass., and was a law student in the office of Daniel Webster. After serving in Congress and being speaker (1847-49) he was appointed, by the governor, U. S. senator to succeed Webster. He delivered orations on the laying of the corner stone of the Washington monument in 1848 and at its dedication in 1885.

WISE, HENRY ALEXANDER.—(1806-1876.) An American lawyer and statesman, born in Drummondtown, Va. He began the practice of law, and was elected to Congress (1832-43). Although a Democrat he sided with the Whigs against Andrew Jackson's bank policy. He was minister to Brazil (1844-47); governor of Virginia (1854) and signed John Brown's death warrant (1859). He was a brigadier-general in the Confederate service but was not successful. In 1862 his

forces were captured and his son slain at Roanoke Island. After the war he practised in Richmond, Va.

WOOD, LEONARD.—Born, 1860. Major-general of United States volunteers, and military governor of Cuba. He was colonel of the Rough Riders at San Juan Hill. Late in 1903 he was appointed major-general of the army of the United States by President Roosevelt and the appointment met with great opposition and an investigation by the Senate.

WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.—Opened May, 1893, and continued for six months; its object the celebration of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus. For its establishment and conduct the United States Government appropriated \$6,000,000; the receipts exceeded the expenditures by \$2,000,000.

WRIGHT, HORATIO GOUVERNEUR.—(1820–1899.) A noted American general and engineer. He was born in Clinton, Conn. In 1841 he graduated from West Point. He served through the Civil War and rose to be major-general of volunteers in 1862. He was brevetted major-general of the army in 1865, and later became chief of the engineers. He retired in 1884.

YOUNG, BRIGHAM.—(1801–1877.) A Mormon leader; president of the Mormon Church. He was one of the twelve founders of Nauvoo. When Joseph Smith was murdered and the Mormons fled from Nauvoo, Brigham Young became the Mormon leader and president of the Utah settlement. President Polk appointed him governor of Utah Territory on its foundation as such. Young announced polygamy in 1852 and it was generally accepted by his followers.



## POVERTY NO OBSTACLE TO A PUBLIC CAREER

*By JOHN FISKE*

YOUNG men have been advised not to take an active interest in politics or the affairs of state until, by business or professional activity, they have secured competence or fortune sufficient to make them independent of party vicissitudes. In my time, I have read the statements of many college professors who have given this advice. It is the essence of the most narrow-minded of dogmas.

Such advice is deleterious to democratic institutions. It is dangerous to the young men of America. To confine political functions to the rich, or to the independent classes, would, ultimately, develop the most intolerable forms of despotism. Had it been in vogue a century ago, there never would have been a country like the United States; France would have retrograded to a powerless nation; the world would have been denied many of its most luminous and inspiring examples.

Money does, and always will, play an important part in politics, and there is no reason why it should not. A country's wealth is represented by its politics. Money has much to do with the policy of a nation because, in this age, it is the power that dominates everything. It must be considered seriously, and it must be used rightly. It must be associated, in an honest way, with industry and labor. There is nothing else so alluring as the possession of great wealth. There is no reason why the possessors of it should be the only ones to enjoy political patronage.

The carping ones will say that Washington was the richest man of his time. This may be very true. It must also be remembered that Washington was a man of broad principles, that he loved his liberty more than he loved his wealth, and that he could see the possibilities of a country like the United States. The precepts he inculcated into the minds of the people were not the precepts of wealth, but the precepts of liberty. He was willing to risk his life, to give up his handsome home and his easy existence to fight with the common people. He bared his breast to death. How many rich men would do that to-day?

Those who have made the history of the country have known the struggles of the poor. They have faced life with nothing but hope. But they have had more than hope,—they have had grit and ambition,

two qualities that will not down, that no hoof can grind into the sand. I believe that every American living has been shocked at the stories of the youth of Abraham Lincoln, his squalid environment, his privations, and his disappointments. Do not tell me that he was guided by an omnipotent hand. He was the master of his own destinies. He said that there was a way, that he would find it; and he did. But his great spirit bore to the grave the deep scars of those early struggles. What had "Phil" Sheridan to look forward to when he was a canal boy? As much as any man in the world. He put his mind in the right channel; he knew that the world needed men; he was going to be one of them. Garfield made the same resolve early in life. He told his mother that he would be President of the United States. She did not laugh at him, and tell him that the presidency was no place for a poor man. She said: "Persevere, study hard, be honest, and you will have just as good a chance as any other young man."

There is no reason in the world, nor any doctrine to oppose it, why every young man in this country should not aim to be the President of the United States. It would be a blessing to the nation if every youth had that aim, for it would make the young men nobler and better citizens, and it would be another step toward that ever-troublesome economic question, how to do away with the prisons. I have no time to waste with an American-born citizen who says that he can never be President. Scarcely a man in the United States had a past more depressing or a future more hopelessly gloomy than Ulysses S. Grant. Yet he was ever buoyed up by the hope of preferment and renown. Andrew Johnson was as humble a tailor as ever drew a stitch. Blaine, the ambitious school-teacher, said: "A man cannot fail who believes in himself."

Jefferson, Adams, Livingstone, and Franklin, were born in poverty. Analyze their characters. Why did they succeed? Simply because they said they would. They earned money in legitimate callings, and they had the ability to save what they earned. They knew that time has an intrinsic value; therefore, they made every moment count. Benjamin Franklin was the best example of a time-valuing man the world has ever known. The great Pennsylvanian, Samuel Jackson Randall, was a man whose poverty was especially creditable to him. His life shows that there is no incompatibility between the narrowest simplicity of life, the most rigid economy in personal expenditures, and the highest success in public life. He spent thirty years in state and national legislation, and left a name and a host of achievements that will live long in the memory of men; but his estate was appraised at less than one thousand dollars. In his case, poverty was no obstacle to achievement, nor to fame. I venture to say that he died far richer than many a millionaire. He lived during that terrible epoch of extravagance that followed the Civil



War,—that period of greed and grabbing that ruined the hopes and characters of many men. But no contumely marred the name of Randall. He was twice speaker, the acknowledged leader of the house, the chairman of the most important committee, and had opportunities to be one of the public plunderers. But he lived modestly within his salary,—a notable gentleman, a worker for his country's good. It would be a miserable interrogatory to ask if his life paid, in a commercial sense. No. But he left something that will endure forever. John A. Logan served his state and his country with fidelity and honor, and died poor, a patriot.

While all of these men had poverty in abundance, they had one element that made them renowned. That element was character. Character is not a separate part of a man, it is the man himself. The term character, in its narrowest sense, means a disposition to do right. A man who discerns right, who prefers right, will have the strength to keep his character perfect. In our colleges, it may be regarded as a poor policy that no provisions have been made for the development of character. It is supposed that the environment will show a student the importance of a good character, and the misfortunes of a bad one. But the man, himself, must have the disposition, and the foundation of a good character will be easily laid.

The best men in the country are wanted to fill its political offices. Take the list of presidents of the United States. They were all men of sterling character, and it is to the credit of the people of this nation that they would rather have, for their chief executive, a poor man with a good character, than a rich man, no matter how powerful his influence, if the tainted breath had dimmed the mirror of his reputation. The compensations of political life were never measured by the wages of the employed. It must be admitted that popularity and public favor are often capricious, and that the idol of to-day is often an outcast of to-morrow. But, in the end, the people are just and generous, and they honor independent thought, courage, manhood, and truth, and are quick to forget errors that proceed from an intrepid spirit. I do not believe in the man who lets political defeat close his career. If you are advocating a cause, and you believe in the infallibility of that cause, stick to your views as you would to life. If you are right, you will some day be heard.

A man who enters politics will find some companions, and be obliged to make some familiarities, that will seem impossible to endure. Now and then, relations that in private life would not be countenanced, must be tolerated with the most smiling complacency. He must deal with men of all grades and conditions; for we are a free nation, and the ballot is our right. But there is no reason why this association with the masses should not be elevating and ennobling.

The present epoch of politics, I might say, is a new one. The leaders must be men of appearance and good taste. The day of the swaggerer has passed. It is the age of the business politician,—the man who is a gentleman, a business man, and a scholar, all in one. When Benjamin F. Butler addressed those in the slums of Boston, he did so in evening dress, with a *boutonnière* in his coat. He believed that his constituents wanted him to be just as stylish as the candidates of the aristocrats.

Great men are as rare in politics as anywhere else. Many enter the arena without the ability or the stamina to succeed, but their life is short, and the energetic and educated men soon take their places. The pay of every public officer is supposed to be adequate to the needs of the citizen who holds that office, and in almost every case it is. It is not, and it never will be, the American purpose to make an officeholder feel that he is an aristocrat. He is a servant of the people. Those who enter politics with filled purses, and use their private means to exalt their positions, are doing their country and themselves an injustice. Be it ever remembered, that, as rocks resist the billows, and as the sun defies the planets, the Constitution of the United States stands an impregnable bulwark of liberty, the strong tower and citadel of defense for the constantly menaced institutions of self-government. It was born with the nation, and it has advanced with the country's industrial progress and its artistic and educational progress. No man within its protection has a right to treat it slightly, and none can use its doctrines to advance his own personal vanity. Its most energetic defenders have been men to whom the pride of a well-filled purse was as naught when compared to its value as the beacon of liberty and right. The man who wrote it could never have given to it its sublime and noble purpose, had he not been a child of the poor. He knew, from the bitter lessons of grim experience, the necessities of the people as a people, and he wrought those feelings in words that will live until the government stands adjourned forever.

We, who have tried to show the growing youth the path in which to tread, have ever been abused because we cling to our ideals. They tell us that Washington, and Jefferson, and Adams, and all the others, had chances that none possess to-day. That is too ridiculous to even ponder over. We use these examples because we are absolutely sure of them. We know that they won success by hard work and honest methods, and that the welfare of their country was more to them than the commonness of personal gain.

No young politician can afford to go into the arena without first studying the lives of those men, and then agreeing to be guided by their precepts. The pessimist, and the man who sees in politics only a field for the demagogue whom luck has placed on the pedestal, or to whom influence has given a start in the race, are the men who can never be



elected. If you are sure of yourself and also of your standing, solicit an independent place on the ticket, by the canvass of the citizens, and then the election boards must recognize you. At the last presidential election, fourteen men were in the race. When you have the chance, make known your views. If you have the courage of your convictions, the people will be proud of you. Be ever ready to refute the idea that an ambitious youth must put money in his pocket before he can enter public life. He must have brains in his head. If you run for a small office and are defeated, do not let that stand in the way of any future attempts. The next time, be ready to make your cause more evident. The mistakes of the man who defeated you will serve as a foundation for your fight. Let those in your neighborhood know that you intend to follow a public life. Talk politics to them whenever you get a chance. Notice the manner in which the country changes to meet the demands of the time. Make every moment pay. Get into good company by an honest, pleasant personality. Attend every meeting where you can hear the questions of the day discussed, and when there is a call for a public speaker, let your voice be heard. Be explicit, but not voluble. If you have something to say, say it briefly and pointedly. Throw your whole soul into your work; but never be a clown. Let the public become aware of your purpose, and, more than all else, let your life be to them an open book, from whose pages they may read a story that will tell of honor and good purpose. When you have won the confidence of a hundred men, it is easy to win the confidence of a hundred more. Confidence spreads, and men want men to represent them who can be trusted. Soon a thousand people will know you to trust you, and they will tell a thousand more. When you are called into the arena, let that confidence be your guide.

The main part of government is plain, practical business, and it requires the same traits, faculties, and methods, as a great commercial or manufacturing enterprise. But the field is broader and the opportunities are more alluring. Government affairs concern every citizen, and the legislator with novel and forcible ideas, which he expresses in original and striking language, has the foundation of success, for he has the audience of every voter.

The country needs great men. They will be found, but they will be men who have shaped their careers, who have worked up from the bottom, who have been guided by the precepts of their illustrious fathers. Financial considerations must not preclude the poorest from public life. Jefferson said: "Our country's destinies will ever be in the hands of those who have come up from the ranks. All that is needed is for those in the ranks to prepare themselves."

## THE CITIZEN AND THE PUBLIC MAN\*

By *THEODORE ROOSEVELT*

GOOD citizenship does not necessarily imply genius. Genius has been defined as the infinite capacity for taking pains, and good citizenship consists in the practice of the ordinary, humdrum, common virtues, which we all take for granted, and which, sad to say, all of us do not carry out in practice.

Jefferson said that the whole art of government lies in being honest. That is not the whole art, but it is the foundation of all government. The foundation is not enough, but if you do not have that, you cannot erect upon it any superstructure that is worth building. You must have honesty as the first requisite of good citizenship. We have too much of a tendency in this country to deify mere smartness, mere intellectual acumen unaccompanied by morality. There is no attitude that speaks worse for a commonwealth than this of admiring or failing to condemn the man who is unconscientious, unscrupulous, and immoral, but who succeeds. If a man has not the root of honesty in him; has not at the foundation of his character righteousness and decency, then the abler and the braver he is, the more dangerous he is. It is an additional shame to a man that he should be evil, when he has in him the power to do much good.

In all our history, who is the man first thought of when Americans wish to name the archetype of evil? Benedict Arnold, the traitor, who had not the root of honesty in him. And yet he was one of the most brilliant soldiers that ever wore the American uniform. Had he ended as he began, he would have been an example to all Americans. How would our nation look if we failed to condemn Arnold as his crime deserved; if we said: "Arnold a traitor? Oh, yes, but then he was a dreadfully smart man." There is a danger to us as a nation in the




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\* IN PREPARING this article Mr. Roosevelt made use of the substance of an address recently delivered by him at the church of Rev. F. C. Iglehart, in Newburg, New York. In a note accompanying the corrected and partially rewritten manuscript, Mr. Roosevelt says: "I am doing this simply from a desire to meet your wishes and to help a publication of most excellent aims." — THE EDITOR.



career of the Benedict Arnolds of the political and financial worlds; of the men who prosper in business or in politics by wrong-doing, and who find weak-minded apologists to say for them: "Oh, well, maybe he has been a little tricky, but he has succeeded." Shame to any man who permits his admiration for success to lead him into condoning crime when that crime has led to success! Shame to any man or group of men who permit admiration for wealth or political position to make them condone the evil-doing through which that wealth or that position was attained. We are in danger from the man who tries to rise to political prominence as a demagogue, by inflaming class against class, or section against section. We are in danger from the man who tries to rise in political power by truckling either to the wealthy man who seeks to take corrupt advantage of his wealth, or to the man without wealth who is moved by malice, envy, and hatred, to conspire against the man who is thriftier or more progressive than he. It is necessary to condemn the two types alike. We are in danger from the men who rise in business through swindling, whether on a big or a small scale, and the reason we are in danger is because public opinion is not awake enough, enlightened enough, to make the crushing weight of its condemnation felt against the men who prosper in these ways.

After honesty, as the foundation of the citizenship that counts in business or in politics, must come courage. You must have courage, not only in battle but in civic life. We need physical and we need moral courage. Neither is enough by itself. You need moral courage. Many a man has been brave physically who has flinched morally. You must feel in you a fiery wrath against evil. When you see a wrong, instead of feeling shocked and hurt, and a desire to go home, and wish that right prevailed, you should go out and fight until that wrong is overcome. You must feel ashamed if you do not stand up for the right as you see it; ashamed if you lead a soft and easy life and fail to do your duty. You must have courage. If you do not, the honesty is of no avail.

But honesty and courage, while indispensable, are not enough for good citizenship. I do not care how brave and honest a man is, if he is a fool he is not worth knocking on the head. In addition to courage and honesty, you must have the saving quality of common sense. One hundred and ten years ago France started to form a Republic, and one of the noted men, an exceedingly brilliant man, a scholar of exceptional thought, the Abbé Sieyès, undertook to draw up a constitution. He drew up several constitutions, beautiful documents! but they would not work! The French National Convention resolved in favor of liberty, and in the name of liberty they beheaded every man who did not think as they did. They resolved in favor of fraternity, and beheaded those who objected to such a brotherhood. They resolved in favor of equality

and cut off the heads of those who rose above the level. They indulged in such hideous butcheries in the name of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity, as to make tyranny seem mild in comparison. And all because they lacked common sense as well as morality.

Two or three years before that, we in America had a body of men gathered in a Constitutional Convention to make a constitution. They assembled under the lead of Washington, with Alexander Hamilton, Madison, and many other eminent men. They did not draw up a constitution a week, as the brilliant Sieyès did, but just one Constitution, and that one worked. That was the great point!

It worked, primarily, because it was drawn up by practical politicians — by practical politicians who believed in decency as well as in common sense. If they had been a set of excellent theorists, they would have drawn up a constitution which would have commended itself to other excellent theorists, but which would not have worked. If they had been base, corrupt men, mere opportunists, men who lacked elevating ideals, dishonest, cowardly, they would not have drawn up a document that would have worked at all. On the great scale, the only practical politics is honest politics. The makers of our Constitution were practical politicians who were also sincere reformers, and who were as brave and upright as they were sensible.

Take Washington. He was not a mere theorist. Not a bit of it. He had served in the Virginia Legislature again and again before the war broke out. There he acquired the experience that every man must have in a Legislature if he tries to accomplish anything. He found, when he was with a lot of men actuated by different motives, that he could not have his way altogether; that he had to get the best result he could out of the materials at hand. Alexander Hamilton had taken a prominent part in the politics of New York State. So of Madison, the Adamses, and Patrick Henry, in their commonwealths. These men were all men of theories; but they were not mere theorists.

They had worked in popular bodies, had seen what representative governments and legislatures could and could not do, what the people would and would not stand, just how far they could lead them, just how far they could drive them. They knew they could not get all they wanted, but they knew they could get a great deal. They were not fools and therefore they did not insist upon an impossible best. They were not knaves, and therefore they did insist upon the possible best. If they had been either fools or knaves, they would have done irreparable damage to the country—just as much if they had been one as the other. The fool and the knave play into one another's hands. They do not think they do, but they do. If the men of whom I speak had insisted upon the impossible, on what they could not get, we would not have any Constitu-



tion. If they had not insisted upon the best they could get, their work would not have been worth doing at all. In other words, they had to work as Washington and Lincoln always did work.

For instance, there were in that Constitutional Convention men who were almost as wide awake as we of to-day to the evils of negro slavery; but they lived in a generation when not one man in a thousand felt as they did, and they had to consent, not merely to the recognition of human slavery, but to give increased representation to the slave states for the negro slaves they contained within their borders. It was indefensible from the standpoint of logic; and later the Constitution was denounced as "a league with death and a covenant with hell," because of its containing such a provision. We of our day would be criminal if we put in such a provision. But our forefathers, working under the actual conditions, had to accept the provision, or they could not have obtained the Union, this free Republic. They would have begun exactly such a career as we have seen the republics of South America follow during the eighty years that have elapsed since they threw off the yoke of Spain.

But our leaders were not merely "practical" men, either. They were accustomed to the conduct of affairs, but they were also men of the study, of the library, men who could draw on their knowledge of what had been done in other nations, in other ages. They not only drew from their experience for actual government, but from the wealth of their knowledge of past history. They did not belong to the narrow-minded type which says: "Oh, I am practical," as an excuse for being illiterate or base. Distrust any man who advances the excuse of being practical when he is convicted of some infamy, or is shown to have been utterly ignorant of history.

To be practical, if you use the word in its proper and highest sense, necessarily implies that the man shall have a knowledge of history as well as practice, and above all, that he shall thoroughly understand that to be practical does not imply being base. In the long run, being practical implies being decent, and, if it does not imply that, then drop it.

It does no good, to resolve against vice in the abstract. All the good comes from acting in the concrete, in a way that carries out in practice the principles laid down in the abstract. There should be an eleventh commandment: "Thou shalt tell the truth, and thou shalt tell it just as much on the stump as in the pulpit." Do not fail to perform whatever you have promised. On the other hand, do not, through weakness, folly, or wickedness, promise or ask to have promised what you know cannot be performed. When a man runs for office, if you ask him to promise what you know cannot be done, you are asking him to lie. You are taking a position that is infamous for yourself, because you are asking him to take

an infamous position. On the other hand, if you ask him, as you have a right to ask him, to do what can be performed, and he fails to redeem his promise, hold him to the strictest accountability. If he promises you the millennium, distrust him. If he tells you that provided you vote for his particular, patent remedy, he will cure all diseases of the body politic, and will see that everybody is happy, rich, and prosperous, not only distrust him, but set yourselves down as fools if you follow him.

We have lived 1900 years in the Christian era, and as yet we have had to make our progress step by step with infinite pains and infinite labor. In spite of haltings and shortcomings, we have been striving onward and upward, and as we have made progress in the past, so we will make it in the future. You will not find any royal road in patent legislation, in curious schemes by which everybody becomes virtuous and happy. Not at all! We are going ahead, I trust, a little faster than in the past, but only a little faster. We hope to keep going forward, but by steps, not by bounds. We must keep our eyes on the stars, but we have got to remember that our feet are on the ground. When you meet a man who tries to make you think anything else, he is either a visionary or a demagogue, and in either event he is an unsafe leader.

The citizen who does his whole duty will be careful not to wrongfully attribute dishonest or bad motives to a public servant. This is as reprehensible as to fail to condemn the actually blameworthy. In either case you tend to confuse the public conscience, to debauch the public morality, to make the rogue strive and prosper, and to drive the honest man from public life. It is of vital consequence that our public servants should be honest; it is of no less vital consequence to the welfare of the nation that the real truth should be told about the dishonest and the honest alike; and woe to the man who offends in either respect.

Finally, remember to stand for both the ideal and the practical. Remember that you must have a lofty ideal, as Abraham Lincoln had, and that you must try to achieve it in practical ways as he tried to achieve it, during the four years that he lived and worked and suffered for the people, until his sad, patient, kindly soul was sent to seek its Maker. Remember, also, that you can do your duty as citizens in this country only as you are imbued through and through with the spirit of brotherhood; the spirit that we call Americanism. You can do no permanent good unless you feel, not only in theory but in practice, that fundamentally we are knit together by the close ties, the closest of ties, the ties of morality, of fellow-feeling, and sympathy in its broadest and deepest sense. We cannot live permanently as a republic; we cannot hold our own as the mightiest commonwealth of self-governing free men upon which the sun has ever shone, unless we have it ground into our souls that we know



no class, and no section; that east, west, north, and south, our people, whatever may be their occupations, whatever their conditions in life, stand shoulder to shoulder, striving for honesty, for decency, for all the fundamental virtues and morals that make up good American citizenship.

## THE TRUE POLITICIAN

*By BENJAMIN B. ODELL, Jr.*  
*Governor of New York*



I HAVE very little regard for the man who makes politics a business. But every man should make it his duty to take just as much interest in politics as he takes in his business. The field of politics is not small. It is far from being filled, but I do not regard any profession or business as being filled. If governments are to be improved or sustained, the study of the economies of politics should be denied to no young man any more than he should be denied his citizenship, and I believe that political economy should be sufficiently simplified to permit a course in its rudiments in the primary schools. Knowledge thus gained will give the youth a base for intelligent and independent political opinions. It is the influence of independent voters that affects most powerfully the decision of public questions.

The young man who wishes to engage actively in politics must cast to the winds the belief that it is an impeachment of respectability to be associated with a party, or with the management of a party. Strong, well-developed, well-managed combinations are just as apt to show their supremacy in politics as in business, and it is not discreditable nor demoralizing to blend one's interests with such an organization. If the citizen keeps steadfastly in his mind the patriotic principles that bind him to his party, and the honest convictions which must be possessed by the man who becomes a factor in the management of his nation, then no stigma can be placed on his name; no carping critic can defame him, because he has his country's best interests at heart.

If a young man feels that his abilities are such as to qualify him for public office, he should enter politics; but once in the arena, he should not be seeking, seeking, continually. My experience is that business men make the best politicians.

The educated man in politics is becoming more and more a potent factor and a necessity. If there are any young men training for politics, let me tell them they will never regret gaining all the knowledge within their grasp.

The success of men in politics is not so frequent as the success of men in business. Some have not the endurance to remain in politics, for a political career means many defeats. But the man who would be a true politician must laugh at setbacks; he must not consider them defeats at all, but must take up the burden where the citizens dropped it, and fight the battle anew. Only such men have won; only the men who have been defeated year after year, who have faced the bitterest phases of despair, contumely and contempt, but have raised their banner after each defeat and carried it finally to victory. There were times in my early political life when I felt that any further attempts to gain political recognition were as hopeless as recalling the lost past. But I had entered the fight to win, and had determined not to let any defeat stand in the path of that determination.

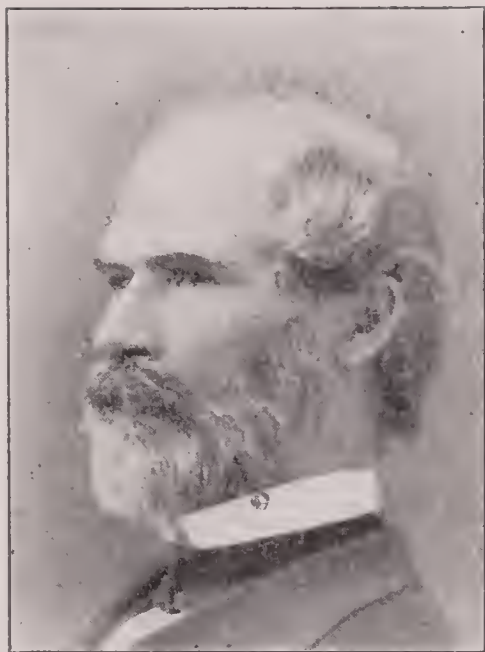
Some men were never intended for political life and therefore cannot hope for success. These men lack the personal characteristics of the true politician. They lack the patience that must be one of the politician's chief virtues. They lack the art of knowing how to represent a community of persons of all shades of political beliefs, or they enter upon a career of grasping greed and individual preferment which they find cut short,—and none too soon. I have no sympathy with the tendency of a certain class of citizens to decry, on the ground that it is degrading, an honest association with men of affairs in politics. Nor have I any sympathy with the office-holding politician who has no aim in life but to draw his salary. I have very little sympathy for the men who are in politics solely for their own gain. Such men are necessary only in the positions which they ultimately fill,—clerkships. I cannot regard such men as politicians, and not one ever becomes a leader.



## POLITICS AS A CAREER

*By HON. GALUSHA A. GROW*

*Ex-Speaker of the House of Representatives*



ONE of my colleagues, during my early years in Congress, was Henry Winter Davis, of Maryland, whose career deserves careful study by every young man ambitious to enter public life, for it affords a signal instance of the value of thorough preparation for one's life-work. Davis had been a fruitful gleaner in all the fields of knowledge, and had not merely dipped into, but had thoroughly mastered, many branches of learning. Thus, to a knowledge of legal and constitutional principles that seemed intuitive, he added a knowledge of facts that was almost equally so; and these combined fully equipped him for the ready and intelligent discussion of any question to which he addressed himself; quick wit and a full mind making him equal to every demand. He died in the prime of manhood, too soon for the full ripening of his fame and influence, but he lived long enough to win for himself an unusual place in legislative work. No small part of his success was due to his laborious student days.

Davis, for a dozen years, was the most powerful orator south of Mason and Dixon's line, and often his auditors, too numerous to be contained in any hall, would stand for hours in the rain to listen to his arguments, held spellbound by his gift of speech. Here again the young man looking to a public career can borrow a useful lesson, for Davis had given as much labor and care to the development of his oratorical powers as he had to storing his mind with useful knowledge. To the art of public speaking must a youth give earnest attention if he would become influential and conspicuous in public life. There is a little doubt in my own mind that any young man of good education, fair ability, and honorable aims can become a man of influence, provided he will incessantly and wisely cultivate the art of oratory.

Thomas Corwin, the greatest stump speaker of his generation, often declared to me in his latter days that his power as an orator was due to years of patient toil in his youth, and throughout his life he bestowed on every one of the great orations which he delivered, much labor and great care. He carefully prepared the topics and the general outline of his speeches, relying upon his copious vocabulary for expression at the

time of utterance. His vocabulary he had enriched by early and patient study of the Bible and the great English poets. Shakespeare and Milton he read constantly, believing that a man saturated with the rhythmic and noble thoughts of these poets could easily maintain pre-eminence when engaged in oratory. Byron, too, he read for his descriptive power, for the melody of his verse, and for his exquisite imagery. "These," Corwin used to declare, "are my ammunition, and it is my opinion that a man of average capacity, if he will become familiar with these authors and will practise public speaking, can be esteemed among the ablest."

Roscoe Conkling's success as an orator was also due to labors begun in his youth and continued through life. He made it a habit in his early days to devote several hours every morning to the reading of Macaulay, and to the study of the English poets, committing to memory many passages, and to that habit he attributed whatever gift he afterward revealed of impressive narration. An incident may be cited in illustration. Early in the Civil War, at Ball's Bluff, on the Potomac, the Union soldiers fell into a trap, and several regiments were cut to pieces. Conkling, then one of the youngest members of the House, delivered a speech in which he described the conflict with such vivid power that it seemed to his auditors as though they could see the battle raging on that desperate field and could almost witness the struggles of the soldiers who fell down the bluffs, to meet death in the waters of the Potomac. That speech gave Conkling national fame, and from that day he was spoken of as one of the great orators of Congress. A friend, speaking to him of this speech, asked how it was possible for him, a man who had not seen the battle, to describe it with such accuracy of detail and with such a perfect word picture as he made of it. Conkling replied that he owed such success as he had won to a diligent study of Macaulay's narrations, especially of Lord Clive's contest in India. The power which he had acquired, and the patient study he had given to Macaulay in his youth had enabled him, when the opportunity came, to gain such fame as Macaulay himself won with his essay.

The young man bent upon public service should come to it not only with a full mind and after diligent training in oratory, but also with the determination to make himself master of some special province of legislation. A man in this complex age cannot hope for success as a universal genius. He must be a specialist if he would attain the greatest eminence and the largest measure of usefulness. President McKinley was in some respects the most noteworthy example of the specialist in public life. The story is told that soon after he opened his law office at Canton, while he was as yet an untrained youth, he was drawn into a debate upon the subject of the tariff. Pitted against him was a trained, shrewd,



and experienced lawyer, who had at his tongue's end all the arguments in favor of free trade. The older and more expert debater won a seeming victory, but McKinley, though silenced for a time, was not convinced. "No one will ever overcome me again in that way," he said to a companion. "I know I am right and I know that I can prove it." Thenceforth the study of books and men and conditions of industry to attain that end was the chief labor of his life. That labor bore abundant fruit. The first speech he made in Congress was on the subject of the tariff, and thereafter its author was looked to in every tariff debate to be one of the chief upholders of protection. Then, after more years of study and preparation, came the framing of the tariff bill of 1890, which bore his name. That bill made his name a household word and paved the way for his subsequent election to the presidency. Had not McKinley early chosen to become a specialist in legislation, it is doubtful if he ever would have achieved the full measure of fame and influence that came to him.

The indolent man can never hope for enduring success in public life. The newcomer who would achieve such success must not be content with a perfunctory discharge of his duties; he must also resolve to make himself familiar with every phase of each new issue or development affecting the thought and purposes of the nation. This calls for ceaseless and untiring industry, and industry counts for as much as, yes, for even more, in the long run, than, native ability. More than half of President Garfield's success was due to persevering industry. Hard work marked and colored every stage of his public career. He went to the bottom of every subject which engaged his attention, and having gotten to the bottom of it, reached out on all sides for all the facts and opinions he could gather relating to it. Thus, during his later years of service, there was no man in Congress who understood so completely all the ramifications of the vast machinery of the federal government, and when he arose to discuss any question he never failed of exhausting it. Indeed, a collection of his speeches, which probably fill more pages of the Congressional Record than those of any other member, would furnish a complete and luminous epitome of the stirring times of which he was a part. Garfield's thirst for useful knowledge, added to a receptive and observant mind and a reasonable amount of ambition, early gave him commanding influence in the House and a hold upon the people which had much to do with his advancement, first to the Senate and afterward to the presidency.

The man who covets continued usefulness and popularity in public office must always keep in mind the fact that he is the servant, not only of the state, but also of the people. He can never afford to be neglectful of small things. The late Congressman Charles O'Neill, of Philadelphia,

was a man of moderate quality, but he was an ideal local representative, because he had a genius for taking pains. It was his proudest boast that he answered with his own hand every letter received by him, and seldom allowed one to remain over night unanswered. He kept a record of all letters received and answers mailed, with the addresses of his correspondents; and he could at a moment's notice refer to every communication that had passed between himself and any of his constituents during his entire congressional career. It was his invariable rule when Congress was in session to pay a weekly visit to his constituents, and the statement was probably true that he knew and could call by name every voter in his district. If he had received a letter from a person he did not know, the first act after his arrival in Philadelphia was to call on that person and make his acquaintance. Every new family that moved into his district was at once looked up, and every one that moved away received a Godspeed from the congressman. Now and then the other Pennsylvania members tried to play practical jokes upon their colleague. One of them once went to him, saying: "Charley, I have a letter from one of your constituents, asking me to send him some garden seeds. He says he has written to you several times, but cannot get an answer." "What's his name?" Some fictitious name was given. "Where does he live?" An address was named at random. "You can't play any such game on me," said the veteran. "There is no such man in my district, and the house you name is occupied by Peter Jones. I know him well, and attended the wedding of his daughter last fall." Methodical habits of this sort kept O'Neill in Congress for the better part of three decades, and made him before his death one of the oldest members in point of service in the House.

Character is, perhaps, the first essential to permanent success in public life. The man who would win and hold influence and popularity of the better sort, must not only be able and diligent; he must also be honest. By this is meant something more than the honesty that impels a man to pay his debts and fulfill his promises. What is had in mind is the resolute, sterling integrity which temptation cannot influence, nor weakness mark with a blot. It was because Samuel J. Randall possessed this quality that he became and remained for many years the most potent individual force on the floor of Congress. His was the power that lies in absolute integrity, and he would have been a foolish man who approached him with a corrupt or questionable proposal. Many of Randall's colleagues surpassed him in intellectual endowment, but in manly fidelity to public trust he stood in a class by himself. Thus, though he lived out his days a poor man, he grew steadily in prominence and influence, and died rich in the esteem and veneration which come only to the man who has never departed from a pure and noble ideal.



The young man looking to a career in politics must early learn how to say "No." He must have grit and backbone, or sooner or later he will fall by the way. Life, as we all know, is a series of compromises, but in every career there come crises when to palter with conviction means little less than moral suicide. The man who, believing that he is in the right, dares to maintain it, assures himself of the respect of his fellows, and lends strength to any cause which may engage his efforts. What a strong man can do when seeking the enforcement of his honest convictions was, perhaps, never better illustrated than by Thomas B. Reed during his first term as Speaker of Congress. He had previously denounced the existing rules of the House as prejudicial to the interests of the majority, and as Speaker he at once set about their radical reformation. This result he mainly sought to secure by counting as present, such members as from partisan motives abstained from voting, and thus prevented a quorum for the dispatch of business. His action provoked the bitterest opposition, and made him for months the most abused man in the country. He met the storm with entire good nature, but never for a moment swerved from his course. His call upon his party to sustain him, promptly and unanimously responded to, made his triumph complete; but there is good reason for believing that, had his action been overruled by the House, he would have resigned the Speakership, as well as his seat, and retired from public life. This was the resolution which he formed when elected Speaker, and explains, in a measure, the composure and serenity with which he met the abuse to which he was subjected for many months. "It is a very soothing thing," said he afterward, "to know just what you are going to do if things do not go your way. You have then prepared for the worst, and have only to wait and find out what was ordained before the foundation of the world."

The young man looking forward to a career in politics, should, first of all, become a member of the party whose principles tally closest with his personal convictions, and devote his leisure time and efforts, or a part of them, to party work in his district or township. A few evenings each week or month, employed with diligence and good judgment, will bring him under the favoring eye of the party leaders, and point him out for recognition and advancement. This can be achieved without interfering with his regular vocation. A foothold once secured, and his advice and services in demand, the extension of his influence from the district to the county and from the county to the state will be only a matter of time, depending in large measure upon himself. The faculty of supreme leadership is given to few men, but every intelligent citizen has it in his power to exert an influence in politics, for popular government can only be carried on by parties, and every party needs efficient workers. It is a mistaken belief that there is no permanency or legiti-

mate promotion in public life. Continued service counts in politics, as in other callings, and, other things being equal, the post of influence and honor generally goes to the man who has been longest before the people. The late William McKinley for a quarter of a century was almost continuously in official station. There have been few breaks in President Roosevelt's office-holding since he attained his majority. Speaker Henderson has been nineteen years a member of the House. Senator Allison has served forty years in Congress; and a list of those whose length of public service reaches into the decades could be indefinitely extended. While it is a mistake for most young men who are without means to accept office, there are marked exceptions to this rule, and conspicuous examples abound of men who, along with continued and faithful public service, have carried forward brilliantly successful careers in trade and in the professions. The young man who has given proof of special aptitude for public service should not hesitate, on account of honorable poverty, to enter it. Besides, to the man with a distinguished public career to his credit, there are always open gainful opportunities which assure him against want in his old age. Roscoe Conkling left the Senate to become in a day one of the leaders of the New York bar, and Warner Miller went from the same body to the presidency of the Nicaragua Canal Company.

Let me say, in conclusion, that to the young men now looking forward to a career in politics, the new century holds out greater opportunities for usefulness and distinction than those offered during any past period in our history. The interpretation of the full meaning of the world power and the world opportunities that have, as it were, been thrust upon us during the last three years; the solution of the commercial, industrial, financial, and political problems presented by our new possessions to the southward and beyond the Pacific; the adjustment of our national ideals to a new and wider horizon—all these belong to a future which shall see America the leader of the world's commerce and finance, and the chief molder of its political thought. Such a future baffles prophecy, but it is already clear that its opportunities will be greater than those presented to the man, who, under the leadership of Washington, built the republic and framed the Constitution; so to those, who, led by Jackson, Clay, Webster, and the younger Adams, gave consciousness and coherence to the work of the fathers; or to the generation which, marshaled by Lincoln and his compatriots, rescued the nation from dismemberment and gave it a new and freer birth. And this future, with all its varied and wondrous possibilities, is the common heritage of our young men. They could not have a nobler one.



## SUCCESS IN PUBLIC OFFICE

By *JOSEPH B. FORAKER*

*United States Senator, Ohio*



NO AMOUNT of education or professional training will make a man successful as a diplomat, as a statesman, or even as a politician, if he lacks the groundwork of common sense, integrity of character, and a reasonable aptitude for public affairs. If he has these qualities, he can succeed in any vocation, other things being equal; and he is likely to drift, or be called, sooner or later, into the public service, especially if circumstances should occur to make a demand for him.

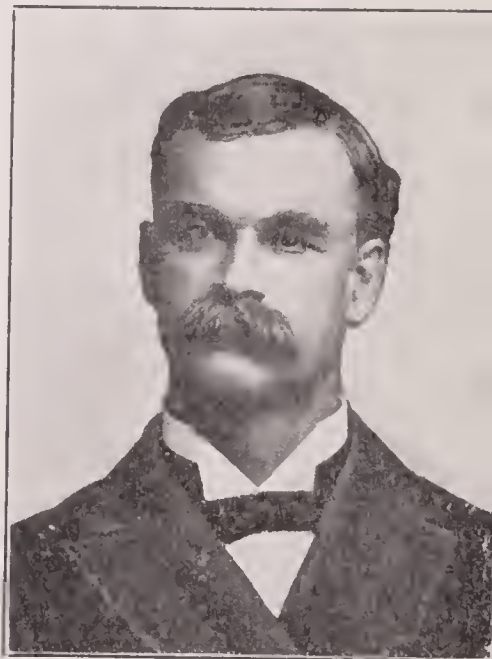
Special professional training may be necessary to make a diplomat in the European sense, but not in the American. No man should be appointed to any place in our foreign service who is not intellectually able, of large experience in public affairs, of good personal address, and a gentleman of culture and refinement. Without these qualities, he would fail in greater or less degree, no matter how much special preparation he might have; but with these qualifications as his general capital, he can best succeed by frank, straightforward, polite, and discreet methods.

## MERIT IN AN OFFICE-HOLDER

By CHARLES E. LITTLEFIELD

*Member of Congress, Maine*

IN ANY survey of the political field for the discovery of merits and demerits in the matter of a public career, one encounters with gratifying frequency the man who has trained ability, and who is thereby enabled to maintain his foothold. It would be more in harmony with the spirit of our institutions if this class were larger, and better protected in its work. We have too frequent changes of administration for the good of the public service, changes which send to the rear many capable public servants, and induct many inexperienced new ones into office.



The better the men in control, the fitter the public servants, the sooner we shall reach a perfect government. The special training of young men for the diplomatic service would be a step in this general reform. It might, in time, be extended to the public service in other branches, and effect an improvement in the *personnel* of Congress.

An educative effort should be made by the colleges and universities, and encouraged and sustained by the nation, with this object in view. In our great and growing department of state, we have heretofore had merely intelligent men, of good address, to depend upon. We should have men not only intelligent, but adroit, skilled, and clever as well. Let the colleges and universities enlarge their courses in civil government and political economy and bring them up to date. It should be firmly engrafted upon the policy of both political parties, by declaration and by practice, that efficient men will be kept in positions requiring expert knowledge and diplomatic training, regardless of party changes. Of course, it would be inconceivable that this plan should ever become applicable to all offices; as, for instance, the retention in office, by a president of one political party, of the cabinet ministers representing another. But there are official subordinates everywhere who really do the most of the work, and are of the highest usefulness in the public service, who need not be disturbed.



## CITIZEN AND VOTER

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THE RECENT EXTENSIONS OF SUFFRAGE TO WOMEN—THE REGISTRATION OF VOTERS—  
—REQUIREMENTS OF THE NATURALIZATION LAWS—REVISING THE VOTING LISTS—  
· MANNER OF VOTING AND OF MEETING CHALLENGES—THE OLD METHOD OF  
PARTY TICKETS—THE AUSTRALIAN BALLOT SYSTEM AND ITS ADVANTAGES—  
LEGAL CONTROL OF CAUCUSES—RECEIVING AND COUNTING THE VOTES CAST  
—DATES OF THE ELECTIONS IN VARIOUS STATES.

### THE DUTIES OF THE CITIZEN

ONE of the functions of life that touches every American citizen when he has reached majority, is the exercise of the suffrage.

The term "citizen" applies to women as well as to men. Women in Colorado, Utah, and Wyoming, are now allowed to vote on the same terms as are men, and in many other states they have a limited suffrage for members of school boards, and other officers. But even where voting by women is not allowed, an intelligent general knowledge of the great problems before the country and of the manner in which they are solved, will be useful in many ways to women. They will be better able to teach their children, will be better comrades for their husbands, and will be more agreeable members of society, if they know something of their country and its government.

An intelligent woman, therefore, should give the same attention to the public affairs of her country, and to the education of her children in these affairs, that she gives to the other relations of life. There is something incongruous in the intimate knowledge that is displayed by some school girls, and even by more mature women, of the history of England, under the Stuarts, or of France under Louis XIV., while they are ignorant of the names of the political leaders, and of the vital events in the history and present development of their own country. Some of the popular prejudices regarding the knowledge of women about the government of their own country were hit off in an amusing way by Judge Robert Grant in his entertaining book, "The Opinions of a Philosopher," when describing his announcement to his wife that he had been asked to run for Congress:—

"Really, Fred! Who has asked you? The governor?"

"The governor does not usually go round on his bended knees asking candidates to run for Congress!" I answered, with mild sarcasm,

"Well, the mayor then?"

"I have labored for years to make plain to Josephine the ramifications of our national, state, and municipal, government; but just as I am beginning to think that she understands the matter tolerably well, she is sure to break out in some such hopeless fashion as this, which shows that her conceptions are still crookeder than a ram's horn. And the strangest part is that she can tell you all about the English Parliament and Home Rule, and whether any given statesman is a Liberal or a Liberal Unionist, and about M. Clemenceau and the relative strength of the Bonapartists and Orleans factions. But when it comes to distinguishing clearly between an alderman and a state senator, or a member of Congress and a member of the Legislature, she is apt to get exasperatingly muddled."

Nearly every male citizen of the United States is a voter under existing laws. This was not the case during the Revolutionary period, and for many years after. The sweeping language of the Declaration of Independence was not understood at that time as going beyond equal justice before the law, for all men. The suffrage was limited, in nearly every state, to those having real estate or to those in receipt of a certain income. In Rhode Island, the requirement of property to the amount of \$134 prevailed down to a recent time. Several states have also required until recently, the payment of certain taxes as a qualification for voting. The original Constitution did not undertake to prescribe who should vote in elections. It was simply provided in regard to the election of members of the House of Representatives, that they should be "chosen every second year by the people of the several states, and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature." This provision distinctly left to the states the decision as to who should be allowed to vote within the states. It simply provided that whoever could vote for members of the more popular house of the Legislature should be allowed to vote for members of the lower house of Congress.

The progress of popular education, and the growing belief that civilized peoples can be trusted to govern themselves, have led to the gradual abolition of nearly all restrictions upon suffrage which go beyond manhood and citizenship. Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, have even allowed persons to vote who have come within the law in regard to the length of residence, even when they have not renounced their allegiance to foreign powers and become citizens of the United States. A few states provide that only those shall be allowed to vote who can read and write. The laws of Massachusetts require the voter to be able to read the Constitution of the



state in the English language, and to write his name. Even more elaborate restrictions have recently been adopted in some of the southern states.

Full suffrage for women prevailed in Utah before it entered the Union as a state. In Wyoming, it was provided by the Constitution of 1889:—

“SEC. 3. Since equality in the enjoyment of natural and civil rights is made sure only through political equality, the laws of this state affecting the political rights and privileges of its citizens shall be without distinction of race, color, sex, or any circumstance or condition whatsoever other than individual incompetency, or unworthiness duly ascertained by a court of competent jurisdiction.”

This provision was carried out in the statutes by the simple declaration that, “When they possess the other qualifications of an elector, the rights of women to the elective franchise, and to hold office, shall be the same as those of men.” In Colorado, it was not until 1893 that the question whether women should vote was submitted to the male voters, and then a favorable answer was given by 35,798 votes for, and 29,451 votes against. Governor Waite thereupon issued his proclamation, under date of December 2, 1893, “that every female person, a resident of Colorado, shall be entitled to vote at all elections, in the same manner in all respects as male persons, and subject to the same qualifications.”

The greater part of the restrictions now imposed upon the right to vote are intended simply to guard against fraud, and not to take away the right from the adult male who complies with the formalities of the law. These formalities, however, have grown more numerous and complicated with the growing importance of the interests involved in elections, the concentration of people in cities, and the opportunities for fraud which these conditions involve. An elaborate system of rules regarding assessment, registration, voting, and counting the votes cast, has grown up in all the states, and has been extended to some of the older states to the primary elections. These rules differ greatly from state to state, but a general idea of their scope and purpose can be given which will aid the young voter, and the mother who desires to teach her children the manner in which the country is governed.

The requirement that the names of voters shall be entered on a written or printed register has been established in most of the states, as a safeguard against abuse of the privilege by those who are not entitled to it. There are a great many such persons in every community, in spite of the wide extension of the right to vote. These include, in the first place, all young men who have not reached the

age of twenty-one years. They include, also, all foreigners who have not become naturalized citizens of the United States, except in the few states where foreigners are permitted to vote. This class of foreign non-voters is numerous in many towns and cities, and it includes some who have taken the preliminary step to become citizens, but who have not yet complied with all the conditions.

The naturalization laws of the United States require that any man, in order to become a citizen, shall have been a resident of the United States for at least five years. If he has been in the country three years before the age of twenty-one, and five years in all, he may become a citizen at any time by making application for naturalization, by filling out the necessary documents, and by supporting his statements by two witnesses. If, however, he has come to the country in later life, he must make a preliminary declaration of his desire to become a citizen two years before receiving his final naturalization papers. It is this provision that has afforded temptation to fraud to many young men desiring to become voters, in the heat of an exciting political contest. They have sometimes dated back their arrival in this country, in order to show that they arrived under eighteen years of age, and were therefore entitled to become citizens immediately upon application. The advantage of this fraud is that they may become voters at once, instead of having to wait two years after filing their application before becoming citizens.

The process of naturalization is carried on chiefly by the courts of the United States, which are located in the leading cities. The laws of the United States authorize naturalization, however, by state courts having a record and a seal, and these are availed of where the United States courts are not convenient. The nationality of women usually follows that of their husbands, when married, and that of their fathers, when unmarried. Where property is involved, however, there are exceptions to this rule, which should be the subject of careful consultation with attorneys familiar with both local and international law.

The list of those who are qualified to vote is usually called the registration list. It is the duty of the election officers to see that no one is entered on the list as a voter who does not possess the necessary qualifications. These qualifications include not only citizenship in the United States, in most cases, but they usually involve under state laws a certain length of residence within the state or election district. A few months' residence in a state is all that is required in some cases, but one year is a more common requirement, and in some cases two years, in the older states. Residence in the county or election district is usually required for a much shorter time,—



thirty or sixty days, for instance. In some states, a voter who is qualified in other respects, is permitted to vote in the precinct or election district where he is registered, even though he may have removed within a few weeks or months to some other election district. This privilege is usually limited to those who remain inhabitants of the state, and it is intended chiefly to secure to them the right of voting for state officers while they retain their citizenship in the state.

The conditions which have thus far been set forth regarding voting relate to the right to register as a voter. Most states require that this right shall be supplemented by the voluntary act of the citizen in order to entitle him to a vote. That is, he must appear personally before the officers who make up the lists, within the time set by the law, and answer any proper questions which may be asked to prove his identity and his qualifications. If he is found qualified, his name will then be entered on the list. The laws of Massachusetts require notice to be given to a voter whose registration is canceled after his name has been entered. In most states, a citizen forfeits the right to vote by failure to comply with the laws governing registration. Thousands of voters, especially in the less important elections, lose their right to vote by failure to secure registration. The registration laws are not restrictive in arbitrarily limiting the right of suffrage, but they impose what are called police regulations, to protect the suffrage from fraud. The laws on this subject are much looser in some states than in others, and in some they are very exacting in their requirements. Many states, including Massachusetts, do not require a citizen to register every year, if he remains a resident of the same election district. Other states, like New York and Illinois, require the citizen to go through the formality of registration every year. The purpose of this is to keep fraud within the narrowest limits, by compelling each citizen to prove his title as a voter, at each annual election.

It is the duty of the election officers in states where names are kept on the voting lists from year to year, to strike off the names of all persons who die, and of all who are known to have left the election district. It is contended by the critics of this system that names are carried from year to year of persons who continue to vote without right, or whose names are used for the voting of "repeaters." This name is given to criminals who vote more than once, whether they happen themselves to be voters, and entitled to one vote, or whether they are not voters at all in the district where they commit their crimes. Some remarkable cases of wholesale repeating have been brought to light in the great cities, where it is not possible for the

election officers, or even for the politicians, to maintain a personal acquaintance with all the voters. There is always a certain number of registered voters who are prevented from voting or who are indifferent to the privilege. The number who are indifferent is usually larger in state elections than in the election for President. It becomes possible, therefore, in a closely contested election, where many reputable citizens have failed to vote, for a few repeaters to vote up the lists just before the polls close, by appearing and giving the names of those who have not voted. These names can easily be obtained from the election officers, or by trained men who have duplicates of the voting lists and who take the names as they are voted upon. The New York system of requiring registration every year sifts out from the lists those who do not actually intend to vote in that year, and to this extent tends to diminish the opportunity for repeating and similar frauds.

Registration usually ends several weeks before an election. It is not possible in most states for the citizen to get his name upon the lists after registration has closed, however strong his proofs that he possesses the other qualifications of the voter. It is of vital importance, therefore, for the young man or woman who desires to exercise the privilege of voting, to learn just what are the requirements regarding residence in the state, and election district, and the time for getting their names upon the voting lists. Political managers do more or less to bring these facts to the attention of citizens, and to persuade them to register, but the degree of system and success of their methods varies much according to the ability of the managers and the character of the elections. The greatest effort is made in states and districts where the parties are closely balanced and where hard work in adding to the voting list, and in getting citizens to vote, may turn the scale in favor of one candidate or the other.

When election day arrives, the citizen who is registered should go to the proper voting place for his district and present himself before the election officers. In many states, a registered voter whose right to vote is disputed, upon the ground that he is no longer a citizen of the state, that he made fraudulent representations in becoming naturalized, that he is disqualified by betting, or for some other reason, may be "challenged" by any citizen. In such cases, if the evidence is clearly against him, he may be refused the right to vote by the election officers. When there is doubt, however, he is usually allowed to vote, but his name is written on the back of his ballot, so that the latter may be identified. This will enable the election officers, or the courts, to discuss his claims with greater deliberation and to count, or refuse to count, his vote in the final returns.



It is not often that a reputable citizen is challenged, but in such an emergency, if he feels that his title to vote is sound, he should insist upon exercising the right in spite of any suggestion of his liability to arrest and punishment. If he is in doubt as to his rights, he should consult the workers and attorneys of his own party, but should not be governed by their judgment if it is too obviously partisan, and does not appeal to his judgment of the correct interpretation of the law. He should listen courteously to the reasons given against his voting, and if he knows them to be founded upon fact, he should give them the weight to which they are entitled. Such cases become of importance only when the election is very close. If, for instance, a candidate was elected by a majority of one vote, and it was claimed that this vote had been given without authority, by a man who was challenged, the courts might be called upon to decide whether the man was entitled to vote, and would accept or reject the vote, and decide the result of the election accordingly.

The system of voting which prevailed in most of the states down to about ten years ago, required the printing of what were called "tickets" by each party. These tickets were often decorated with elaborate party emblems,—flags, eagles, and other devices. In some states, the tickets for the presidential electors, state officers, and county and local officers, were printed on separate sheets. The voter who desired to vote for all the candidates of one party had only to take one of these tickets from a trustworthy party-man and to put it in the voting box. Such a voter, voting for all the candidates of his party without discrimination, was said to vote a "straight" ticket. The man who desired to vote a "split" ticket, by voting for some of the candidates of one party and some of another, was put to more trouble. He would be compelled to take one of the tickets as a basis, to erase the names of the men for whom he did not desire to vote and to write in the names of those he desired to substitute. In some cases where a good many voters were likely to exercise this privilege, "stickers" with gummed backs, would be circulated, bearing the names of the popular candidate who was likely to get votes from the other party, so that they could be pasted over the name of the less popular candidate on the regular party ticket.

The system of party tickets, printed privately by the various party committees, made it comparatively easy in most cases for watchers at the voting places to determine how any man voted. Tickets of unusual shapes, sizes, or colors were sometimes made, on purpose to aid in this classification of voters. This system was detrimental to the exercise of independent judgment by the voters, especially where they were laboring men and might wish to vote against the party of

their employer, or were public officials and might wish to vote against the party in power. It was among the legends of one of the Government navy yards that the party in control used to carry voters by boat-loads from the yard to the voting place, where a party leader, usually one of the overseers of the navy yard men, would hand out the ballots and see that they were voted. On one occasion, when the usual size of tickets was perhaps ten or twelve inches by five inches, a short card, about one inch by five, with the names closely printed in small type, was distributed among the employees, in order that any one voting the opposition ticket of standard size might be more easily detected.

### THE AUSTRALIAN BALLOT SYSTEM

ONE of the disagreeable features attaching to the system of these private party tickets was the solicitation to which a voter was subjected at the voting places. Frauds were sometimes perpetrated upon careless and ignorant voters, by giving them tickets purporting to give all the names of the candidates of their party, but having the names of one or more opposition candidates substituted. These evils have been largely done away with by the adoption of the Australian ballot. Separate party tickets are no longer printed, where this system has been adopted. The lists of candidates of all parties are printed by the election authorities upon a uniform ballot. It is impossible, therefore, where the Australian system has been adopted in its best form, for any outsider to form an idea how a voter proposes to vote or to force any particular ticket upon him. Under the best form of the Australian system, there is one ticket bearing the names of all the candidates of the regular parties. The voter has to choose among them, and to check off with a pencil those for whom he wishes to vote. He presents himself at the voting place without any tickets, and is handed a single copy of the official ballot by an election officer. He then passes into a small compartment or booth, where outsiders are not allowed to enter except under special circumstances, and there checks off the names of his favorite candidates. He then folds his ballot and puts it in the official box and passes out from behind the rail which usually shuts off the booths from the outside crowd of workers and politicians.

The Australian ballot has been adopted in various modified forms in a large number of states. These forms differ chiefly in the manner of presenting the lists of candidates. Many of them, like the New York law, put all the candidates of one party under a single head,



and make it possible for the voter by a single check in a designated position to vote for all of the candidates under this head. In other states, the candidates of the different parties are put together under the designation of the office for which they are candidates. This is the Massachusetts system, which is one of the best, in some respects, in the United States. The Massachusetts law does not allow voting for an entire party ticket by a single mark. It is necessary to pick out the party designation against each candidate and to mark separately. It is just as easy under this system to vote for one or more of the opposition candidates as to vote for all the candidates of one party. This system, while more troublesome when one wishes to vote for all the candidates of one party than if he could do so by a general mark, has the advantage that it compels the voter to weigh carefully the merits of the candidates for each office. If there is a candidate of his party who is a little below the proper standard of character and ability, he cannot salve his conscience by voting for him in block with all the other candidates. He must either give him a separate mark, give the mark to a candidate of better character and capacity of one of the other parties, or refrain from marking for either candidate. The latter policy would have the effect of not voting for that office.

The adoption of the Australian ballot, and the printing of the ballots by the election authorities, has compelled a recognition by law of political organizations. This was not the case in the United States until recently. Political parties were outside of the law, and were left to regulate their machinery as they saw fit. The courts would rarely interfere to overrule the action of the authorities of a party, even though palpable fraud in counting votes or managing primary meetings was shown. They took the ground that parties were voluntary associations and that they must be governed by their own constituted authorities. The adoption of the Australian ballot compelled the election authorities to decide who was to go upon the ballot as candidates of the different parties. No such decision was called for when tickets were printed and circulated by party organizations without official recognition. Any party that saw fit could print and distribute tickets, and any citizen could vote such tickets. The necessity of deciding who should go upon the official ballot as the regular Republican candidate, for instance, in the 13th ward of Chicago, brings the question of party management before the legal authorities. They are now compelled to decide, in disputed cases, who are the candidates entitled to certain party designations and who are not entitled to such designations. In several states, this has led to elaborate laws governing the calling of primary meetings,—where they shall be held,

what notice of them shall be given, how their officers shall be chosen, how they shall nominate candidates, and how disputes shall be settled. This movement to give legal recognition to party organizations is comparatively in its infancy in the United States, but promises to gain ground, and to secure greater fairness in party management. There was no appeal from the decision of party managers when their committees and primaries had no legal standing, no matter what frauds they might perpetrate, or how completely they might exclude qualified voters from taking part in party management. The regulation of these matters by law promises to be an important step in American political development.

The laws in most states where the Australian ballot has been adopted make provision for independent nominations upon written petition of a given number of citizens. It is a nomination of this sort that appears on the Massachusetts ballot under the title, "Democratic Social Nomination Papers." The candidates thus designated were not nominated by a convention, but by the signed endorsement of a certain required number of legal voters. Even where these regulations are oppressive in requiring a large number of signatures, or other difficult formalities, independent candidates can be voted for by "stickers," and by writing their names in blank spaces provided by the law.

## RECEIVING AND COUNTING THE VOTES

THE time allowed for voting in the cities is usually from sunrise to sunset, but in small towns the voting places sometimes open or close at a later hour. The counting of the votes is one of the most important features of the election, and much legislation has been enacted in different states to insure accuracy and fairness. The systems of counting, and the names of the officers employed, differ in the different states. A list of all the candidates voted for, and the number of votes for each, is usually made out and sworn to within a few hours after the voting is completed. Such lists then go from the officers of the election district to the county officers, or to some state officer, usually the secretary of state. A recount of the votes is authorized in some states upon petitions from candidates or their friends, and the recount is either accepted as final, or is made a part of the evidence in any proceedings which may take place before the state boards, or in the courts, in regard to the actual result of the election.

The state legislature is the body in most states which has the final determination as to who have been elected officers of the state, and who



have been elected members of the legislature. Their duty is only nominal in many states, where the counting has been done by executive officers, and where there is no dispute as to the result. In some states, however, as in Kentucky in 1899, the legislature has the power to revise the returns, reject those which they consider irregular or improper, and to determine for itself who have been elected state officers. In nearly every state the legislature is the judge of the election and of the qualifications of its own members, because of the fundamental principle of popular right for which the English people contended in choosing the early parliaments. The king was originally able to make up the Parliament about as he choose, by issuing writs of election to certain towns and boroughs, omitting others, and by deciding who had been legally chosen members. This caused resentment as the Parliament became conscious of its rights and powers, and in the time of Elizabeth, it was insisted that the Parliament should determine for itself who should sit as its members. This principle was brought into the Constitution of the United States and into most of the state constitutions, as a protection to popular rights, and to insure the complete independence of the lawmaking part from the executive department of the government.

The legislature, therefore, in nearly every state, determines who shall sit as its members, and the Constitution of the United States prescribes that "each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications, of its own members." This provision has sometimes led to unfair decisions by a party having a majority in Congress, or in a state legislature, against a member fairly elected from the opposition party, and efforts have sometimes been made to secure a different method of deciding election contests. These efforts have succeeded to the extent that elaborate provisions have been made in most states for counting and ascertaining the votes cast, but the principle of the right of the legislative body to decide finally upon the title of those seeking admission to it has not been abandoned.

The voter in the United States has, from time to time, a great variety of officers to vote for. The laws of the different states determine when elections shall be held for state officers. The majority of the states now hold their elections on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November, which is the date fixed by Congress for the choice of presidential electors, and in most states for members of Congress. A number of southern states, in order to escape interference by Federal officers, have fixed their elections for state officers at a different time from that for presidential electors. This interference was very odious to the southern people during the so-called "carpet-bag" *régime*, and they feared that the presence of federal officials and

troops at the elections would result in turning the state governments over to irresponsible persons. They decided that even if the electoral votes of the states for President should be thus controlled, they would be better able to reserve control of the state governments by having the elections on a separate day. Alabama holds her state election each year on the first Monday of August; Arkansas on the first Monday of September; Georgia on the first Wednesday of October; Louisiana on the third Tuesday of April. Several of the New England states and some of the western states held their elections for a long time in September and October. Vermont still elects state officers on the first Tuesday of September, and Maine on the second Monday of September. Rhode Island adheres to the election of state officers on the first Wednesday of April, and Oregon on the first Monday of June. The two leading middle states which formerly held elections in October, Ohio and Indiana, have recently changed to the date of the presidential election.



## PRESIDENTS, HOW THEY ARE MADE

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MANNER OF CHOOSING THE PRESIDENT THROUGH THE ELECTORAL COLLEGE—THE  
PRIMARY MEETINGS, STATE CONVENTIONS, AND NATIONAL CONVENTIONS—SHARE  
OF EACH STATE IN CHOOSING A PRESIDENT—METHODS OF CONDUCTING AN ELECTION  
ILLUSTRATED—COUNTING THE VOTES AND INAUGURATING THE PRESIDENT—METHOD  
OF MAKING A POLITICAL CAREER—THE STUDY OF POLITICAL ECONOMY—WISDOM  
OF LIBERALITY AND COURTESY IN POLITICS.

### THE MANNER OF CHOOSING A PRESIDENT

THE President and the Vice-president of the United States are chosen by the votes of the states. It has come to be common to speak as though their election depended upon the vote of the whole American people, and in one sense this has come to be the fact. The machinery of choosing a President and a Vice-president, however, was designed to operate very differently from the manner in which it has been worked out in practice. It was intended by the framers of the Constitution that a few prudent and well-informed men should be chosen by each state, that they should consult among themselves, and should each send to Washington the certificate of his vote for President, and Vice-president, resulting from this candid consultation. Nothing like the nominating conventions that are now held, and the popular excitement over the merits of the two recognized candidates, was contemplated in the original plan for the choice of a President. The machinery adopted by the fathers of the Constitution still survives, in spite of the change in its practical operation. In the selection of a president, each state has a number of votes equal to the number of its representatives, plus its two senators. New York, for instance, with thirty-four representatives and two senators, has thirty-six votes in the choice of a President. Missouri, with thirteen representatives and two senators, has fifteen votes. Wyoming, with one representative and two senators, has three votes.

When a man votes for President, it is not in his power to vote directly for his party candidate. When a man says: "I shall vote for Mr. Bryan," or "I shall vote for Mr. McKinley," he means that he will vote for the candidates for presidential electors who are pledged to vote for the candidates of his party for President and for Vice-

president. In Wyoming, the women who desired Mr. Bryan to be President would vote for three representative men or women who were named by the Democratic State Convention as their candidates for presidential electors. If these three men or women had a majority over any other three in the state, they would be chosen as the electors for Wyoming. These electors meet in January, cast their votes for Mr. Bryan, and transmit the certificate of their three votes to the Secretary of State in Washington. In the contemplation of the law, the election of president is not completed until these votes have been opened, and counted, in the presence of Congress, in February.

Under the present system of party organization, however, the action of the electors is known the moment they have been chosen in their respective states. These electors have ceased to be free agents, in the sense of exercising any discretion in regard to candidates after they are chosen, and have become merely the instruments for recording the vote of the people of their states for one or the other of the presidential candidates. An elector chosen upon the Bryan ticket in 1900, for instance, was selected for the single purpose of voting for Mr. Bryan for President and for Mr. Stevenson for Vice-president. If he had voted for Mr. McKinley, or for some other person, it would have been considered, under existing conditions, the greatest breach of faith which a man could commit. Only once has an elector failed to vote as expected. This was at the second election of President Monroe, when, though all the electors were in favor of his election as President, one of them voted for another candidate in order that Monroe should not enjoy the honor of a unanimous election which had been paid to Washington. Although this act had no effect upon the result of the election, it was severely censured at the time, and would have been so severely censured if it had changed the result, that the elector's life would have been made unbearable by the people of his community.

Under the present political practices, the selection of a President begins with the primaries of the two great parties. As most of the machinery for the selection of a president is employed for the selection of other officers, it will be interesting to trace the history of the contest for president from the first mention of a candidate, or of a political issue, until the announcement of the actual result. The illustration will be made more definite by using the names of the candidates in 1896. There was a serious division in the Democratic party at the beginning of 1896, as to whether the party should declare for the support of the gold standard or for opening the mints of the United States to the free coinage of silver. The contest was sectional to some extent,—the Democrats in the Northeastern States being strongly



in favor of gold, while those west of the Mississippi were chiefly for silver. In the Middle States, including those of the Mississippi Valley, there was much division of opinion. Friends of President Cleveland were generally favorable to gold, and they exerted their efforts to have men who favored gold sent to the different conventions.

As the contest in Kentucky was one of the most important and interesting, an account of the primary elections in that state, and their influence upon the nomination of the Democratic candidate for President, will illustrate the methods that are followed in all the states. The primary elections differ somewhat in system in the different states, but are the same in principle. They are the first meetings of citizens who belong to the one or the other party, for expressing their views on public questions and on their choice between candidates. Each political party has its separate primary meetings, in which members of the other party are not allowed to take part. In Kentucky, for instance, no Republicans would take part in the Democratic primaries, and no Democrats would be expected to appear at Republican primaries. The contest within the Democratic party as to whether gold or silver should be endorsed was fought out among the Democrats themselves in their primaries. These meetings were held on the same day, toward the close of May, throughout the state. Both sides brought as many of their friends as possible to the primary meetings to choose delegates to the state convention. The lines were so sharply drawn between the friends of gold and silver that it was known in nearly every case whether the men elected were in favor of the gold standard or of opening the mints to the free coinage of silver. When the returns were received on Saturday night, May 30, it was found that the silver men had carried a great many districts in the state and had gained a majority in the state convention. The division throughout the country was so close that this vote in Kentucky practically settled the question. Kentucky had only 26 votes in the National Convention out of a total of about 900, but it was already known that certain states would be for gold and others for silver. Each state would have a vote in that national convention, equal to twice its number of senators and representatives. A majority of these votes would decide whether the party should declare in its platform for maintaining the gold standard or for opening the mints to silver. It was already known that about 325 votes would be for gold and that as many or more would be for silver. As several states yet to vote were strongly for silver, it was calculated that the votes of Kentucky were absolutely necessary to give the gold men a majority. When they lost Kentucky, it was generally recognized that they were beaten, and that the convention would be for silver.

The primaries, however, were only an indication of what was to happen. The state convention of the Democratic party of Kentucky, made up of delegates chosen at the primaries, was the body authorized to choose the twenty-six delegates of Kentucky and to give them their instructions. They were instructed, when the convention met, to vote for the free coinage of silver. This state convention met on June 14, 1896, and demanded "the free and unlimited coinage of both gold and silver, at the ratio of 16 to 1, as standard money, with equal legal tender power, independent of the action of any other nation." It was under the instructions of this resolution that the twenty-six delegates of Kentucky went to the National Democratic Convention. It remains to describe how this convention is constituted.

The National Convention of the two leading parties is made up of delegates from the states. Each state is entitled, as already stated, to exactly twice the number of votes which would be represented by all of its representatives in Congress and all of the senators to which the state is entitled. Each Congressional district is entitled to two votes, and the state is entitled to four additional votes for its two senators. In Kentucky, for instance, there are eleven representatives in Congress, and two senators. The number of delegates is twice the total of these representatives in Congress. The delegates are chosen in some cases by separate conventions in each Congressional district, but the Democrats in most states have adopted what is known as the "unit rule," by which a majority of the delegates from a state are authorized to decide how the votes of all the delegates shall be cast. Under this rule, if Kentucky had chosen twelve gold men and fourteen silver men, the fourteen silver men would have decided how the vote of the state should be cast, and the chairman of the delegation would have announced that Kentucky cast twenty-six votes for silver. The rule is different among the Republicans in most of the states. They would have permitted their delegates under similar circumstances to record in the National Convention twelve votes for gold and fourteen for silver.

It makes no difference, under the existing rules of the two parties, in regard to the title of a state to representation, whether the state has any senators or congressmen of the party holding the convention. A Republican state, like Vermont, for instance, is entitled to her full proportion of eight delegates in the Democratic National Convention, and a Democratic state, like Florida, is entitled to her eight delegates in the Republican National Convention. The proposition has sometimes been made to change the distribution of delegates and to base it upon the number of votes cast by the people for the party tickets. The whole matter is in the control of the party and is not regulated in any way by law. The Republicans, if they saw fit, might refuse to



receive any delegates from Democratic states, or might receive them only from Congressional districts having Republican members of Congress. There was a time, as set forth in another chapter, when the members of Congress performed the duties now performed by the National Convention, by meeting in caucus and selecting the candidates of their party for President and Vice-president. Under the existing conditions, however, both parties have adhered for many years to the system of giving each state the same ratio of representation in the National Convention as it has in the two houses of Congress.

The two chief duties of the National Convention are to name the candidates for President and Vice-president, and to adopt a declaration of principles which the party proposes to advocate in the election. This declaration has come to be called, in modern political slang, the party "platform," and the various paragraphs relating to the different subjects, by a simple extension of the simile, are called the "planks." The plank over which the greatest interest was felt in 1896 was the money plank, which set forth whether the party favored the gold standard, or the free coinage of silver. At the Democratic National Convention, which began at Chicago on July 7, the platform was adopted by a vote of 628 to 301. The majority vote represented those who favored silver, and the minority, those who were opposed to the declaration for silver and who favored a declaration for the gold standard. The nomination for President in a Democratic National convention requires a two-thirds vote in order to make a choice. A majority of all the votes cast is sufficient in the Republican convention.

After the National Convention has nominated candidates for President and Vice-president, and has adopted a platform, the contest begins between the two political parties. Public meetings are held, at which addresses are made in support of the rival platforms, and the machinery of party committees is put in operation to stir up the enthusiasm of voters, to convince them that the side favored by the committee is the right side, and to get them to vote on election day.

In all of the states, the people now vote for electors of President, on the same day, which is the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. They vote in each state for all the electors to which the state is entitled. A man in Kentucky, for instance, votes for 26 Democratic candidates for electors, and the man or woman in Wyoming votes for three such candidates. If all Democrats in the state vote for all the Democratic electors, and they cast more votes than the Republicans, all the Democratic electors are chosen. It is rarely that a state chooses some electors of one party and some of another, but this has happened, through personal prejudices against candidates for electors, or through mistakes in marking votes. Thus, in Ohio,

in 1892, most of the Republican candidates for electors had about 1,800 majority, but through mistakes in marking tickets, one of the Democratic electors had more than the lowest Republican elector and was chosen. A similar result occurred in Kentucky in 1896, where the leading McKinley electors had 281 majority over the Bryan electors, but one Bryan elector was chosen. The same conditions arose in California at the same election, President McKinley getting eight electors and Mr. Bryan one.

The system of choosing all the electors on one ticket is not required by Federal law, but it is the rule at present in all of the states. It was the custom early in the century to choose electors by districts, in much the same manner as members of Congress are chosen. This method was followed in Michigan in 1892, with the result that nine electors favorable to President Harrison were chosen, and five favorable to Mr. Cleveland. The system of choosing the whole number of electors by general vote has become so well established, however, that the division of the state into districts was generally considered as unfair, and was changed before the next election. The general rule, that all of the electors are chosen upon a general ticket, and that all those elected from one state are from the same party, makes it easy, as soon as the voting in the states is ascertained, to determine who will be elected President. All that the states really do under the Constitution, in voting for electors, is to name the men who are afterward to select the President; but under the practice, which has arisen, of making the electors only voting machines to carry out the will of the people, it is only necessary to ascertain what states have chosen electors of one or the other party, and to foot up the number of electors chosen in the different states by each party, in order to determine who will be elected President.

Thus, in 1896, it was found that twenty-three states had chosen electors favorable to Mr. McKinley, with a total of two hundred and seventy-one electors (including those from the states which were divided), and that the electors favorable to Mr. Bryan had received votes from twenty-four states (including the two in which he received the support of a single elector), and that the whole number of electors to which he was entitled was one hundred and seventy-six. The exact results could not be determined in states so close as Kentucky and California until the final count of the popular vote was made several weeks after the election, but it was apparent on the night of election day that enough states had voted for the electors favorable to Mr. McKinley to give him a majority of all the electors chosen. It was, therefore, generally admitted on the next day that Mr. McKinley would be President of the United States for the next term. People



generally said, "Mr. McKinley has been elected." What they meant was that a majority of electors favorable to him had been chosen by the people of the states. The electors did not meet until January, and their votes were not finally opened, and counted until February. It was then found that all the electors had voted according to their implied pledge in accepting the nominations of their several parties, and that Mr. McKinley had two hundred and seventy-one votes, which was forty-eight more than was necessary to make a majority of all the electors.

The elections of a president occur every four years. The voting by the people for electors at the election in 1900, took place on Tuesday, November 6. The electors chosen by the people in November met on the second Monday in January (January 14, 1901), and cast their votes in accordance with their instructions from the party conventions by which they were nominated. A certificate of the result of their voting was sent to the Secretary of State at Washington and was by him delivered to the president of the Senate. Both Houses of Congress met in the hall of the House of Representatives, at one o'clock on the second Wednesday in February (February 13, 1901), and there proceeded to count the votes of the electors and to announce who had been chosen President and Vice-president. These proceedings were in accordance with the law of February 3, 1887, which provided as carefully as possible for deciding cases where two or more sets of persons claimed to have been chosen electors from the same state. The law was somewhat indefinite before the Act of 1887, and disputes regarding several states took place in 1877, which threatened at one time to result in a declaration by the Senate that Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio had been elected President, and by the House, that Samuel J. Tilden of New York had been elected. The matter was settled through a temporary device, but it was generally recognized that a law should be passed providing definite rules for deciding such contests in future. The Act of 1887 was the result.

The inauguration of the President takes place on the fourth day of the March following his election. The Congress chosen at the same time with the President, does not meet until the first Monday of December following the inauguration of the President. The Fifty-seventh Congress, for instance, whose members were mostly chosen in November, 1900, did not meet in regular session until the first Monday of December, 1901. The regular session usually lasts until the middle of the following summer, when adjournment is taken to the first Monday of the following December. Then comes the short session, which will expire in the case of the Fifty-seventh Congress on March 4, 1903. This system results in the meeting of the short session of Congress after the new Congress has been elected and it

has been the subject of criticism, and of several attempts to change the time of meeting. These attempts have not thus far been successful, because of the disinclination of Congress to amend the Constitution without imperative reasons. The President has authority to call Congress in extra session at any time during its term of two years. President Cleveland called the Fifty-third Congress in extra session on August 7, 1893, for the purpose of repealing the purchasing clause of the silver law of 1890. President McKinley called the Fifty-fifth Congress in extra session on March 24, 1897, for the purpose of changing the customs tariff and passing other legislation. The President usually calls an extra session of the Senate to meet immediately upon the inauguration of the new President, for the purpose of considering his appointments to the Cabinet and to other offices. This session is usually short and, as the House is not in session to act upon laws, little is done in the way of legislation.

#### METHOD OF MAKING A POLITICAL CAREER

IN AMERICA, every man, and in some states, every woman, with few discriminations as to property, or to special training, is able to take part in the government of the country. The government thus rests upon the broad basis of the consent of all,—as determined at least by a plurality of votes given through the legal machinery of elections. This fact makes it possible for every young man to aspire to make his way in public life. A young man ambitious to get his foot upon the first round of the ladder can usually do so in the country districts by attending the primaries or caucuses of the party which he prefers, offering to canvass certain districts, and otherwise to help the party committees. He is likely very soon to be put upon one of these committees, and to have a share in directing the course of his party in the district. He may next be chosen as a delegate to a county, congressional, or state, convention, and may gradually work his way, if he shows honesty and ability, to a front rank in his party. There is no exclusive class of men that has control of political matters, and advancement is comparatively easy where there is merit, and adaptability to political conditions. This is not always the case in the great cities, where the party machinery is in the hands of men who are not always governed by the best motives and where ability and honesty are not always the strongest recommendation for becoming influential in party management.

A young man who is ambitious of real distinction in public life, should devote less time and energy to the party machinery than to studying the important problems that are before the country. A great



many young men and women drift naturally into the party organization of their parents, while others, through a spirit of hostility or a desire to show independence, take the opposite side. Neither of these motives should govern the sincere desire to get to the bottom of public questions, and to decide them according to sound reasoning and honest purposes. Many of the questions that were before the country during its early history,—the extension of the suffrage for instance, and the checking of the progress of slavery, were more distinctly moral questions than those now under discussion. Such economic questions as those, respectively, of the tariff, the currency, and the method of governing dependencies, are now coming more to the front. They demand careful study in order to reach sound conclusions. They cannot be settled wisely by prejudice, nor by picking up a fact, or an argument, here and there, from the newspapers. The newspapers may be entirely trustworthy as far as they go, but they deal with fragments of present facts. They cannot lay the foundations of scientific study.

The young man or woman who desires to be really useful in public life, and to make a permanent career, must make a careful study of the masters of political economy. This is no easy task. Treatises on political economy, and on the currency, are dull reading to those who have not a natural inclination in those directions. The two grand master treatises which may be said to lie at the foundation of modern political economy are the "Wealth of Nations," by Adam Smith, and the "Principles of Political Economy," by John Stuart Mill. The doctrines that those men laid down are subject to many modifications and restrictions, because they carried to their ultimate logical conclusions many principles which are subject to modifying and even to hostile influences. They taught the school of political economy known as *laissez faire*,—the French words for leaving things to themselves. They believed that the law of competition would work out the salvation of society, without interference by legislation, by bringing success always to the most efficient workers and to the best systems, and by eliminating the incompetent and unwise. A knowledge of the principles of the science as expounded by these writers is vital to a correct comprehension of political economy, but the young student should not be dogmatic in adopting their views without considering the many modifying influences which affect their application to society. These modifying influences he will learn from later works, which will gradually adjust his view of the economic horizon to its real aspect, instead of revealing only the brilliance, and the apparent simplicity, of the principles of the great founders of modern economic science.

The young man who enters upon politics without this basis of thorough training may succeed in some degree by popularity of manners or by facility of speech, but he is not likely to have the permanent success that comes from long and thoughtful consideration of the problems of government and of political economy. Some men who have made the greatest mark in public life have not been the most brilliant men,—have not been those who by reason of their facility of speech have flashed, meteor-like, through a term or two of Congress,—but they have been men whose research and sound judgment have led their fellow members to look to them for correct and illuminating views on the puzzling problems of modern statecraft.

Political life is not to be recommended to the average young man unless he feels a peculiar attraction toward the study of these public questions. Every man ought to do his fair share toward the intelligent government of the country, but the acceptance of political places merely because it involves a transient honor, is often harmful to a man's best interests. The habits of political life, especially the excitement, the uncertainty, and the tendency to neglect one's business and professional interests, sometimes spoil a man, in a year or two, for his business or profession, without fitting him for useful public service. There is nothing more pitiable in Washington, the national capital, than the sight of men who have served a term or two in Congress without special brilliance, who have had their law practice, or their business, broken up, and who have lost the habits of steady application to work which would fit them to build up a new business or a fresh practice. The young man would, in most cases, better put away any political temptation that involves serious neglect of his business or profession. He may properly serve on a committee of citizens to show his interest in good government, but it would be better, in the majority of cases, that he should decline to serve in the state government, or the Legislature, unless the possession of independent means or the organization of his business makes him certain that he can do so without the sacrifice of his personal interests. There are enough men of independent fortunes, or of those who make politics a trade, to fill these places without making it a patriotic duty for the young man without fortune to accept them, except in special emergencies. A young lawyer who has not many briefs may derive some benefit in enlarging his acquaintance by serving in the city government or in the state legislature, if the expenses of election are not large; but as soon as he has a paying practice, he is likely to find it more profitable in every way than are political honors. The young man who embarks upon politics with the knowledge that he must make his living from an official salary, is less likely to serve his country



by so doing than to become the cringing servant of some powerful political boss, or to sacrifice his convictions in order to keep his position.

The young man taking part in politics should endeavor first of all to preserve his manhood. This can be done only by being independent of political bosses or of changes in public opinion. A man who honestly believes that a given policy is right, should not change his views because the policy seems for the moment to be unpopular. His conclusions upon public questions should be grounded upon sufficient knowledge, and should be supported by sufficient moral courage, not to change with every whiff of popular favor. If his party, or his state, supports a policy that he considers dangerous to the welfare of the country, he should be in a position, from a financial point of view, and should have the courage and manhood, from a moral point of view, to retire from public life rather than to renounce his convictions. People will have much greater respect for a man who follows this course than for one who is obviously trimming his sails to catch every breeze of popular favor. If he is right, it is almost certain that public opinion will come around to his views. This does not mean that a man should shut himself up against the influence of changing conditions and of new light. If some of the advocates of the new policies can show him that they are sound, and that his previous views have been wrong, then he should not hesitate to change his position; but he should beware of changing it simply because others have changed who have not presented convincing arguments for making the change.

Another important lesson that should be learned by the young man taking part in politics, and even by the private citizen in his political relations, is that of courtesy, and toleration. There are two sides to every public question, and strong arguments can usually be presented on either side. If this were not the case, divisions of opinion would not exist, and people would proceed to adopt unanimously the policy that sound reasoning showed to be wise. A young man, therefore, however strongly convinced of the wisdom of his own views, should not belittle, or distrust, the sincerity and intelligence of those who differ from him. It would be a most depressing view to take, if some of the arguments of our politicians were followed to their logical conclusion, that nearly half of the voters of the country, belonging to the opposite party, were either densely ignorant, or maliciously hostile to the public interests. A moment's reflection should convince a young man or woman that others are probably as sincere, and perhaps as thoughtful, as themselves, and that there may be more than one point of view for looking at public questions.

Even aside from the moral arguments for a broad and tolerant view of the opinions of others, courtesy and fairness toward opponents are suggested by one's personal interests. This will be especially true for a young man who hopes to win distinction in public life. However loyal he may be to his own party, and however convinced of the soundness of its policies, it will do him no harm to show courtesy and deference to the opinions of his acquaintances in the other party, for their votes may turn the scale some day when he is a candidate for office. If he has been narrow in his views, and bitter and insulting to those who differed from him, he can expect at best only the votes of the strongest partisans of his own party, and may even lose some of those if he has carried his intolerance into the settlement of differences inside the party. If, on the other hand, he has always treated his opponents as gentlemen and has given them the credit for the same sincerity that he himself professes, many of their votes are likely to be given to him out of respect for his candor and ability, and such votes may turn the scale in his favor in some close election. Even if he is not himself a candidate for office, but is only seeking the success of his party, he will accomplish much more by persuasion than by calling names or by attempting to bully people into accepting his opinions. The most powerful politicians have usually been those who have convinced every man they met, whatever his party, or whatever his attitude toward them, that they were charmed to know him and that they held his individuality and opinions in some degree of respect. The same qualities, to some extent, that make for success in business,—frank honesty, courtesy to all, and the endeavor to meet the views of others as far as it can be done without sacrificing one's own,—are the qualities that make the successful politician. When combined with thorough training and exact knowledge, they will equip any young man desirous of making his way in the world of politics.















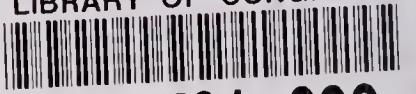








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